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A

GRAMMAR

OF THE

GERMAN LANGUAGE,

2971

BY

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TO

THE FIFTH EDITION.

The learned and worthy Author of this Grammar, who died on the 14th of March 1826, had not only prepared the present edition, but exerted himself in seeing it through the press, all but the few concluding sheets. By a reference to the preceding edition, the fifth will be found greatly improved and augmented, and will, it is hoped, support the high character, which *Noehden's German Grammar* has for six and twenty years deservedly enjoyed in this country, of being at once the most complete and the most philosophical Introduction to the knowledge of the German Language, for the use of the Englishmen, hitherto published. The erudition of the Author supplied him with appropriate elucidations from

other Languages which cannot but be acceptable to the Student, as the Grammatical Structure of one Language is best impressed on the memory in proportion to its being shewn to be analogous to that of another.

H.

London, April, 1826.

INTRODUCTION.

CONCERNING THE LANGUAGE WHICH IS THE SUBJECT OF THIS GRAMMAR.

THE Language, which this Grammar proposes to teach, was originally a dialect, peculiar to a small district in Germany, and is to this day distinguished, from the other modes of speech, by the name of HIGH GERMAN. It began first to rise into notice, at the time of the Reformation; but, since the sixteenth century, it has been cultivated in different provinces, and ultimately adopted, as their common tongue, by all. It is become the language of literature, and of general communication, whereas the remaining idioms are confined to the colloquial intercourse of their own provinces, and even there, in a considerable degree, excluded from the use of the well-educated and higher classes. It is the language of the whole nation, and must, by preference, be understood, when *The German* is mentioned.

It is my design, in the following pages, briefly to exhibit the history of this dialect, and to say a few words on its nature and properties.

The province, formerly known by the name of the Electorate of Saxony, was the place that gave it birth. That part of Germany had, at an early period, been inhabited by people of Slavonick descent* ; who were, in the tenth century, mixed with a colony of Germans from Franconia†, established among them. The Franconians eventually became the masters of the country, and as such introduced their language. But it experienced some change, by being communicated to the prior inhabitants. Their tongue, as that of other Slavonick tribes, was probably soft and harmonious ; and would, to a certain

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* A people, called Slavonians, derived originally from the vicinity of the Caspian Sea, had, in remote times, migrated to Germany, and occupied different parts of that country, among others, the district in question. This district borders upon Bohemia, where the mass of the population is Slavonick, and where, to this day, a pure Slavonick dialect is spoken. In my journey through Bohemia, in the spring 1815, I was much struck with that language, the sounds of which are so soft and harmonious, that I do not hesitate to say, they rival those of the Italian.

† A tract, in the middle, between North and South Germany, inhabited by a tribe called *Franken*, that is, Franks, or Franconians. The Emperour Henry I, a prince of distinguished merit, did much for the internal improvement of Germany, (see *Pütter's History of Germany*), and it was in his time that the colony alluded to was settled in Saxony.

degree, impart these qualities to any new language, with which it might come in collision. The dialect of Franconia belongs to those of Upper (or Southern) Germany; which are all, more or less, spoken with broad, guttural, and hissing sounds. They differ, in this respect, from the pronunciation of Lower (or Northern) Germany, which is smooth and fluent. But the idiom, formed in the Electorate of Saxony, besides that admixture of softness, derived from the Slavonians, was also tempered by the intercourse, which the people of that district maintained with other parts of Germany. Their industry, and superior civilization, brought them into contact with numerous strangers, whose customs and language, to a certain degree, mingled with their own. In this manner, much of the original roughness of the *Upper German* was worn away; and the *High German* modelled into a form, better calculated for the purposes of literature, and conversation, than its predecessor, the Upper German.

Before we proceed farther in our remarks, it will be proper to advert to the name which was given to this idiom, in contradistinction to the others. It is by that appellation discriminated from the Low German, which is the native language of the northern parts of Germany*.

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* These are, what were formerly called the circles of Westphalia and Lower Saxony; and the northern provinces of the Upper Saxon circle, viz. Pomerania, and Brandenburgh. The Low German is also spoken in Prussia, and traces of it are found in a part of Transyl-

That of the south of Germany was called Upper German*; from this the High German likewise differs. But the name seems to have been chiefly assigned in opposition to the Low German, because that new dialect appertained to a country situated higher up, that is to say, more to the south. In this manner there existed, about the time of the Reformation, three grand divisions of the German language, viz. the Upper German *(Ober Deutsch)*, the Low German *(Nieder Deutsch*, or *Platt Deutsch)*, and lastly the High German *(Hoch Deutsch)*†.

Previously to that era, every literary production, composed in the German tongue, was written in the Upper German, which was the vehicle of literature, throughout the country. The High German was the native dialect of Luther, and, by the influence of his example, it began to be raised to a competition with the former idiom, and

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vania, which was peopled by a colony from the north of Germany, in the 13th century. See *Büsching Geography*, in *Transylvania*, or Siebenbürgen.

* This belongs to Franconia, Austria, Bavaria, Suabia, the southern part of the Upper Saxon circle, Silesia, and some of the Rhenish countries.

† *Hoch Deutsch*, signifying *High German*, is pronounced *Hoch Doitch*. This is sometimes erroneously rendered, in English, by *High Dutch*, a mistake which must have arisen from the similarity of the words *Deutsch* and *Dutch*; though they are essentially different in meaning, the former denoting *German*, and the latter *Hollandish*.

was soon spread over the whole nation. The Bible, and other works of high interest, at that period, published in this dialect, and the number of protestant divines which issued from Saxony, tended to make it known, even in remoter places. It was read and understood every where, and by degrees, cultivated as the general language of all Germany. It drove the Upper German from that preeminence, which it had hitherto occupied, and, in its stead, possessed itself of the fields of literature and science. The effect of those circumstances*, which had concurred to exalt the Upper German above the other dialects, had ceased ; and it was compelled to give way to a new rival. The Low German, was, at no time, much employed in writing, though this idiom, if it had been attended to, might perhaps have produced a language, for softness and harmony far superior to the two others.

If we would define the character of the High German,

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* In the 11th, 12th, and 13th centuries, the age when the modern languages of Europe began to be used in writing, the crown of the Empire was enjoyed by natives of the South, or Upper Germany. See *Pütter's History of the German Empire.* The Upper German, therefore, was the language of the court;—this was one reason. The vicinity of France and Italy gave the southern provinces of Germany, at the revival of letters, a great advantage over the north, and they made early attempts in literary compositions. See *Eichhorn's History of the Revival and Progress of Literature.* This was another circumstance that favoured the Upper German.

in its present state, we must say, that it does not exclusively belong to any particular province, or district, but is the property, and lawful possession of the whole nation*. It has, since it is generally come into use, received improvements from all quarters, and is no longer to be considered in the light, in which it first appeared. Hence it evidently follows that, if there be a difference, between the several provinces, respecting any particular point, in the mode of speaking, it should be adjusted, not according to the peculiar usage of one or the other, but upon general principles, which apply to language, on philosophick and impartial grounds. By this observation we ought to be guided, when we determine the question, in which parts the best German, that is to say, the best High German, is to be met with. It will not satisfy us, after the foregoing considerations, to be told, that we must look for example and authority to the practice of that district, from which it derived its origin. This cannot be logically admitted: but whatever, in case of doubt, may be decided by the rules and analogy of general grammar, must inevitably be acknowledged as paramount to the influence of any local custom; and

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* In this declaration I am supported by the eminent authority of Mr. Adelung, whom I have quoted, at length, in the first edition, page 12. See his system of the German Language (Lehrgebäude der deutschen Sprache). Vol. 1. p. 84, 85 and 89. To which may be added his statements, in his *Introduction to German Orthography*, section 1, chap. 3, from page 45 to 62.

that province ought certainly to be thought to possess the German in its greatest perfection and purity, which the least deviates from these rules, and this analogy.

It was, for a long time, taken for granted that the High German was best spoken in that part of the country, commonly called Upper Saxony, and, nominally, at the towns of Meissen and Dresden. And that must have been true, at its origin and first progress. But as soon as the language was familiarized to the other provinces, there arose a possibility that it might, in its advancement, meet with a set of people, out of its native district, who, from particular circumstances, would be able to do it more justice than those, to whom it owed its primary existence. Such a chance was afforded it among the inhabitants of Lower Saxony; who, from the favourable disposition of their organs of speech, were better qualified to follow the dictates of general rule and analogy, than any of their neighbours. It would then of necessity happen, that if there were instances in which the Upper Saxons violated the rules of general analogy, when the Lower Saxons were capable of observing them, the latter must, in those instances, have the preference. On the other hand, it is also obvious that, when the Upper Saxons are guilty of deviations from the genuine standard of pronunciation, the Lower Saxons may, reciprocally, have their pecularities, likewise in opposition to the law prescribed. That law is, that the pronunciation should be brought as near to the orthography of the language, as it is possible, that the sounds should correspond with the letters, and that the farther any province recedes from that line, the more distant it is from the claim of a good pronunciation.

In drawing a comparison between the pretensions of the Upper and Lower Saxons, it is my wish to act with the utmost fairness, according to the preceding observations, I shall, therefore, enumerate the principal faults of both competitors, and carefully weigh them against one another, which will lead to such a result, as may enable the foreigner to draw his own conclusion.

The errours of the Upper Saxons are these :

1. A want of distinction between soft and hard letters; as between *B* and *P*, *D* and *T*, *G* and *K*. The hard sounds, in general, prevail. *B* is pronounced by them like *P*, *D* like *T*, and *G* like *K*. The nature of this misnomer will readily be understood by the English reader, who will recognise in it his friends, Captain Fluellen*, and Mr. Morgan†. But it is a grievous defect! *Baum* is metamorphosed into *Paum*, *Buch* into *Puch*, *Ball* into *Pall*. In the same manner, they speak *ter*, *tie*, *tas*, for *der*, *die*, *das*; *tienen* for *dienen*; *tumm* for *dumm*. Thus they substitute *K* for *G*, and say *Kott* instead of *Gott*, *kehen*, instead of *gehen*. It may be answered, that such certainly are the popular irregularities of pronunciation, with the Upper Saxons; but that the High German should be considered according to the state, in which it exists among persons of letters, and the higher orders. This, indeed, is just; yet it does not seem to remove the objection : for that default appears to be radical, common to all, and incurable. At least,

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* See Shakspear's Henry V.

† See Roderick Random, and Peregrine Pickle.

so I have found it, in the course of my observation; and I hardly think it possible, that I should be mistaken: if I am, all that is said upon this point, falls of itself to the ground. But what is singular, it has often struck me, as if the Upper Saxons (I speak of literary, and well educated people) were incapable of perceiving, by the ear, any difference between the hard and soft sounds, though their tongue, by chance, sometimes produces the latter. In this case, I have remarked, the soft sound is, for the most part, misapplied, by being placed not where it ought to be, but perversely substituted for a hard one, as *B* for *P*, in *die Bost*, for *Post; der Blatz*, for *Platz*, &c.

2. The hissing aspiration (like the English *sh*) which is given to the letter *S*, before *p* and *t*, especially in the beginning of words, I consider as the second objection, *Stehen**, for example, is made to sound like *shtehen: sprechen*† like *shprechen; Durst*‡ like *Dursht*. When the orthography of the language dictates an *S*, what can be the ground for uttering this consonant otherwise, than simply as an *S*? For that hissing aspiration a particular sign is appropriated, namely *sch;* and why should a similar confusion of the alphabetick characters be tolerated? If that aspiration is to be expressed, for what reason may the type, assigned to it, not be employed in writing? But where the orthography revolts at the *sch*, what charms can this sound possess for pronunciation? It surely has nothing to recommend it, on the score of euphony; nor can we yield so much to the preeminent

* to stand. † to speak. ‡ thirst.

authority of one province, as, after its example, to establish a mode of speaking, which is contrary to the general rule, and affords, by its intrinsick merit, no compensation for such an irregularity. It is the foreigner who should be consulted on this point: but it will be difficult to persuade him (I allude to such foreigners as belong to the most enlightened nations of Europe) that the hissing sound of *Sch* (English *Sh*) is a desirable substitute for that of the simple *S*. It is a peculiarity, which has been retained from the Upper German, and ought to be dismissed from the general language. The Lower Saxons are always disposed to avoid it, and it would, in this instance, certainly be unreasonable to require of them, that they should exchange their better pronunciation, for one which is decidedly worse.

3. In the third place, we may notice the want of discrimination between the diphthong *ü*, and the vowel *i*, which seems to prevail among the Upper Saxons. They pronounce both alike, namely as the *ee* of the English; but *ü* should be sounded very differently, as will be shown, when we speak of this letter.

4. Lastly, I would remark the hurried pronunciation of the prefix *ge*, in the preterite participles; where the *e* is so entirely slurred over, as if it did not exist. For example, *gelobt*, praised; *geliebt*, loved; *gelehrt*, learned, they speak *klobt*, *kliebt*, *klehrt*. This is wrong, because the vowel *e*, though it has, in this prefix, a short and somewhat obscure sound, should still be pronounced, and be made audible.

It would be foreign to the subject to touch upon other inaccuracies, which may be said to be only failings of

the vulgar*. I shall, therefore, proceed to point out the defects, with which the pronunciation of the Lower Saxons is to be charged.

1. It has a tendency to assume soft letters, in the room of hard ones, when the former are improper. Thus *D* is heard for *T*, as *Dag* for *Tag*, *Duch* for *Tuch*, &c.

2. The hissing aspiration is sometimes omitted, where, in conformity with the established orthography, it ought to be received. A Lower Saxon will be inclined to say *slagen* for *schlagen*; *sneiden* for *schneiden*, &c.

3. The third variation from the rule is perhaps the most frequent, and the most serious. It concerns the letter *G*, in the true pronunciation of which many persons are found to err. Some express it by the sound of *j*, which is like the English *y*, in the beginning of some words, such as *year*, *yoke*, *yellow*. *Gott*, God, is accordingly spoken, as if written *jott* (English *yott*); *Garten*, garden, as if *jarten* (i. e. *yarten*), &c. Others pronounce the *g* like *ch*, which is a guttural sound, as will be mentioned in its place. But the right mode of uttering the letter *g*, is that which is perceived in the English words, *god*, *garden*, *get*, *give*.

I have stated the prominent imperfections of both the Upper, and the Lower Saxon, pronunciation; and the student will be enabled to escape the offences, to which his attention has been thus awakened. It is now necessary to balance them, with strict justice, against one another, and determine, by reasoning, which of the two

* Of this description is, *m* substituted for *w*, as *mir wollen*, for *wir wollen*.

modes of pronunciation is least objectionable, or, in other words, which of the two provinces is to be preferred, with regard to this question.

The exceptions, which have been offered against the pronunciation of the Upper Saxons, are, as I think, in themselves more considerable, than those which are alleged against the Lower Saxons. We will not, however, discuss them singly, but limit ourselves to the following observations.

The provincial habits, which exist in Upper Saxony, and those in particular, which we have adverted to, are derived from the Upper German. This produces the singular disadvantage, that, where they are once rooted, in the organs of speech, it is difficult to remove them. The Upper Saxons, therefore, find it a task of inconceivable hardship to divest themselves of those blemishes: and their pronunciation of the High German will, generally speaking, to a certain degree, remain defective. It is otherwise with the inhabitants of Lower Saxony. They can, with ease, adapt their speech to various sounds: and though any particular mode of utterance should not be familiar to them, it is not beyond their capacity to attain it. They have, of late years, proved this by their manner of speaking the High German. Those individuals who are acquainted with the rules of a right pronunciation, have, in general, well succeeded in observing them; when they fail, in some instances, it is more from inattention, than any incorrigible deficiency. That inattention may, with moderate exertion, be entirely overcome; and their language, as far as the act of speaking is involved, be brought very near the line of

perfection. To this the Upper Saxons will not be able to aspire, while they labour under those peculiarities, which distinguish them from their neighbours. The High German, as spoken by the Lower Saxons, is, besides, in some degree mellowed by that softness of tone, which the native dialect of this tribe possesses. This is a circumstance of which foreigners readily become sensible*: and I may add, that the natives of Upper Saxony them-

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* I will here again quote a passage, cited in the former editions, from *Mrs. Piozzi's Observations and Reflections in the course of a Journey through France, Italy, and Germany*, Vol. II. p. 137. That lady distinguishes Hanover (in Lower Saxony) as the spot where the best German is spoken; and I am not disposed to question this opinion, since my last visits to that country (in the years 1814 and 1815, 1818 and 1819). *Even I*, says Mrs. Piozzi, *can perceive the language harsher, the farther one is removed from Hanover on either side: for Hanover, as Madame de Bianconi told me, at Dresden, is the Florence of Germany, and the tongue, spoken at that town, is supposed, and justly, the criterion of perfect Teutsch* (i. e. German).—The High German, spoken at Göttingen (which is the second town of the kingdom of Hanover, and a university) appeared to me, when I was last there, even more pure and harmonious, than what is heard in the capital itself. Indeed, I am inclined to think, that, in regard to pronunciation and sound, no better German is to be met with any where, than at Göttingen, among the natives of education.

selves are not unconscious of it. I remarked this during my residence in Upper Saxony (in the spring of the year 1815), chiefly at Leipzig and Dresden, where I became acquainted with some individuals, who did not hesitate to declare the Lower Saxon pronunciation preferable to their own.* Hence it is obvious, to what part of Germany it will be advisable for a foreigner to repair, who wishes to possess himself of the best pronunciation of the language. It should be some town of distinction, within the verge of the Lower Saxon dialect, in which, besides Lower Saxony, strictly so called, are to be comprehended the northern districts, contiguous to it, and, in particular, the country of Brandenburgh. He may, accordingly, choose his residence at Hamburgh, Hanover, Göttingen, Brunswick, or Berlin. It will be his business to be on his guard against the provincial failings, incident to the people, among whom he may reside; what has been pointed out, will secure him against the most striking errours. A native of Great Britain,

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* Being born in Lower Saxony (at Göttingen, in the kingdom of Hanover) I could not help being flattered by the manner, in which I sometimes heard the Lower Saxon pronunciation commended, nay, I may say admired, even at Leipzig and Dresden. A lady at Dresden, to whom I had the honour of being introduced, was so prepossessed in its favour, that she had taken pains to correct her native pronunciation, and to imitate that of Lower Saxony. As she was a person of excellent understanding, and judgment, of a highly cultivated mind, and accomplished talents, her example is entitled to great respect.

or Ireland, will find the pronunciation, according to the Lower Saxon dialect, more congenial to his own tongue, and consequently more easy to acquire, than the pronunciation of Upper Saxony.

As to the internal value of the language, in phraseology and expression, this is not a local question. There all the provinces are upon the same level: they all draw their accomplishment from the mines of literature. Whether a man write well, or be successful in the choice of words, to express his thoughts, does not depend upon the spot where he was born and educated, but upon the proficiency he has made in letters, the degree of cultivation he has attained, and the capacity of his own mind. In writing, and in a literary point of view, the High German is every where the same. The difference does not lie between the provinces, but between individuals. The best authors furnish the store for the language, education teaches how to employ it.

The native dialects of the several provinces, in Germany, present a curious and interesting subject to the grammatical enquirer*: neither would it be devoid of attraction for the historian, who searches into the origin

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* The author, in a tour which he made (in the summer 1815) through a great part of Germany, was much struck by the variation of the dialects. It is amusing, and instructive, for the linguist to observe, either their approximation, or deviation, and the shades of dissimilitude, by which they are marked.

of the component parts, which constitute a nation; nor the philosopher, who speculates on the formation, progress, and diversity of language. But this is a topick, entirely removed from our view, in the work before us. We have only one track to follow, which is to lead us to the acquisition of the general language; the language of literature, and of polite conversation. Of the other idioms it is enough for the student to know, that they exist, that they differ from one another, and that they must not be confounded with the *High German*, which is the common instrument of speech, every where understood, throughout the whole country.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. In the printed alphabet, some letters are apt to be mistaken by beginners, and to be confounded one with another. To facilitate the discrimination, I will place them here together, and point out the difference.

𝔅 (B), and 𝔙 (V).

The latter is open in the middle, the former joined across.

𝔈 (C), and 𝔈 (E).

𝔈 (E) has a little horizontal stroke in the middle, projecting to the right, and 𝔈 (C) has not.

𝔊 (G), and 𝔖 (S).

These letters, being both of rather a round form, are sometimes taken for one another, particularly the 𝔊 for the 𝔖. But 𝔖 (S) has an opening above, 𝔊 (G) is closed, and has besides a perpendicular stroke within.

𝔎 (K), 𝔑 (N), 𝔎 (R).

𝔎 (K) is rounded at the top, 𝔑 (N). is open in the middle, 𝔎 (R) is united about the middle.

𝔐 (M), and 𝔚 (W).

𝔐 (M) is open at the bottom, 𝔚 (W) is closed.

ƀ (b), and ɦ (h).

ƀ (b) is perfectly closed below, ɦ (h) is somewhat open, and ends at the bottom, on one side, with a hair stroke. I have known ɓ (d) confounded with ƀ (b), but the difference between these letters is sufficiently marked, even for the commonest attention.

f (f), and ſ (ſ).

f (f) has a horizontal line above.

m (m), and w (w).

m (m) is entirely open at the bottom, w (w) is partly closed.

r (r), and ɾ (x).

ɾ (x) has a little hair-stroke below, on the left.

v (v), and ƴ (y).

v (v) is closed; ƴ (y) is somewhat open below, and ends with a hair-stroke.

2. The copperplate exhibits three varieties of German hand-writing:

No. 1. is known by the name of Fractur-Schrift, i. e. the *Broken Letter*, because the characters are formed by interrupted touches of the pen. It is used for inscriptions, and for the first lines of any formal writing.

No. 2. called Canzley-Schrift, i. e. *Chancery writing*, serves commonly for engrossing.

No. 3. is the current hand.

Fac-simile of German Handwriting

No. 1

Fraktur or the broken Letter

a b c d e f g h i k l m n

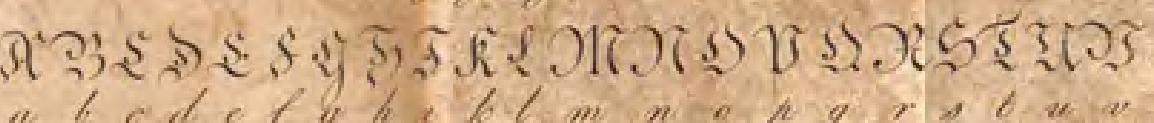
o p q r s t u v w x y z

a b c d e f g h i k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z ä ö ü

a b c d e f g h i k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z ä ö ü

No. 2

Engrossing Hand



a b c d e f g h i k l m n o p q r s t u v

w x y z a b c d e f g h i k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

No. 3

Current Hand

a a b c d e f g h i k l m

n o p q r s t u v w x y z

a b c d e f g h i k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z ä ö ü j ch ck

a b c d e ff g h i k l m n o p q r ß s t u v w x y z k ä ö ü j ch ck

The foregoing Alphabets exemplified.

Heil dir! unsichtbar Kind des Menschenhauchs
der Engel Schwester, süsse Sprache dir!

Ehe deren traurer Dienst dich volle Frucht
Zeitige würdet der Empfindung bist.
Kein Lied von Elfen sey dir süsse je
Ein mannigfalt Echo in der Menschheit Arme.

Engraved for Dr Kirchners German Grammar.

Of these three alphabets, both the capital and small letters are represented; and an example is added, to show them in connexion.

SECTION II.

ON ORTHOGRAPHY.

ORTHOGRAPHY has in the German, as in other languages, been exposed to variation, and change. To avoid these, and to give to the external form of the language a proper degree of consistency, the following rules should be kept in view:

First, such characters, in writing, should be used, as by their import, approach the nearest to the best pronunciation*. But

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* It may be thought that, in laying down this rule, I am proceeding in a circle: for I have elsewhere said, that you should speak as you write, and here it seems to be recommended, that you should write as you speak. Orthography and pronunciation must reciprocally assist each other; and it will happen that, in the case of a difference, the one may be ascertained, when the other appears doubtful; or, it is sometimes more easy to fix the one, than the other. That which is first established, will lend its assistance to the other. In this manner, I think, there remains no fallacy. The rule itself is sanctioned

Secondly, a regard must, at the same time, be had to derivation, and etymology.

In the third place, we ought not, without necessity, and preponderating reasons, to depart from the general practice, which has been once introduced.

If these rules had been followed, those many innovations, which have embarrassed German orthography, would not have taken place. It was the ignorance of those principles, that led to imaginary reforms. Most of them were but misconceived changes, which had their source in the fancy, perverseness, and vanity of individuals. It would not be fit to enter into a detail of these deviations; let it suffice to put the student on his guard. The books, with which he is first brought acquainted, should be models of a just orthography: the variations, which he will afterwards notice, in his reading, he ought to examine according to the foregoing rules.

We have now to advert to some peculiarities, which exist in German orthography.

1. All nouns substantive are written with capital letters, that is to say, the letter which begins any such noun, must be a capital*. And not only words which

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by the authority of Quintilian, who says, Inst. Or. 1. 7. *Ego (nisi quod consuetudo obtinuerit) sic scribendum quidque judico, quomodo sonat. Hic enim usus est literarum, ut custodiant voces, et velut depositum reddant legentibus; itaque id exprimere debent quod dicturi sumus.*

* This practice formerly also prevailed in English. Dr. FRANKLIN (see his Private Correspondence, pub-

are properly substantives, fall under the operation of this law, but likewise all that are employed, at any time, in that quality. They assume this particular appearance of substantives, wherever they supply their place. Of this description are:

(a) Adjectives, *either* when a substantive is understood, as: Der Weiſe, the wise (man); der Große, the great (man); die Schöne, the fair (woman): *or*, when they are themselves employed abstractedly, with the power of a substantive, as: Das Schwarz, the black, *i. e.* the colour *black;* das Grün, the green, *i. e.* the colour *green;* das Rund, the round substance, rotundity. To the adjectives may be added the possessive pronouns, as: Die Meinigen, my friends; die Deinigen, thy friends; die Seinigen, his friends; die Unſrigen, our friends, or our people; die Eurigen, your friends; die Ihrigen, their friends. Thus das Mein, that which is mine *(meum);* das Dein, that which is thine *(tuum)*, &c.

(b) The Infinitives, when they are made to express

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lished in London 1817, 4to. p. 127, 128) greatly commends it, and pointedly reprobates the injudicious alteration, adopted by printers, in modern times, of printing all words alike. Distinguishing the substantives in that manner, afforded, he says, a facility for understanding what was read, especially to those that were not very familiarly acquainted with the language. He observes that in the English books, printed between the Restoration and the Reign of George II, the substantives all begin with capital letters as in German.

the substantive acts of their verbs, for which the English make use of the participle. Das Leſen, the act, or employment, of reading; das Schreiben, the act of writing; das Gehen, the act of walking; das Reiſen, the act of travelling.

(c) Any other part of speech which, by an article, or pronoun, prefixed, acquires the character of a substantive. Das Aber, the word *but;* das Ich, the pronoun I *(ego)*, &c.

Proper names have in all European languages, and consequently also in the German, capital letters for their initials. But the adjectives, derived from, or belonging to, such proper names, should likewise be written with capital letters: as, from Rom, Rome—Römiſch, Roman; from Spanien, Spain—Spaniſch, Spanish; Italien, Italy—Italieniſch, Italian; Deutſchland, Germany—Deutſch, German; Frankreich, France—Franzöſiſch, French; Plato, Plato—Platoniſch, Platonick; Cicero, Cicero—Ciceronianiſch, Ciceronian. These adjectives are generally written, in English, with capitals; but, in German, some persons do not distinguish them from common adjectives, and accordingly write them with small initials; which appears to be erroneous.

2. In English, the first personal pronoun *(I)* is always written capitally: in German, the corresponding pronoun (ich) has not this prerogative, except where it begins a sentence, or is to be distinguished by an emphasis. On the other hand, the pronouns of address, such as *thou, you,* which in English have, usually, only small letters, are begun with capitals, in German, as:

Du, Ihr, Er, Sie*. This is the effect of an imaginary politeness, by which also possessive and demonstrative pronouns, when they are used as the means of speaking to another person, are decorated with capital letters. For example, in these sentences, *I have received your letter*, *I have seen your father*, &c. the pronoun *Your* would be written, with a capital.

3. The *Punctuation*, in German orthography, differs only in some trifling particulars from the English. The dissimilarity refers principally to the *comma*, and is as follows:

(a) The English frequently confine adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions with their cases, between commas, as in these examples: "He was extremely astonished to see his dominions overwhelmed, *on a sudden*, with such an inundation of licentious barbarians," Hume. —"It is, *accordingly*, this steady, inflexible virtue, this regard to principle," &c. Blair.—"Those who have great affairs to manage, intricate plans to pursue, many enemies, *perhaps*, to encounter in the pursuit." Blair. —"Let us cease, *therefore*, from looking up with discontent and envy to those, whom birth or fortune has placed above us." Blair.—"The world appears not, *then*, originally made for the private convenience of me alone." Harris.—"The fact, *certainly*, is much otherwise.—If sensibility, *therefore*, be not incompatible with true wisdom." &c. Melmoth's Cicero.—"In this, *however*, as above, numbers of the most beautiful

* See chap. III. sect. 1.

crystals were formed." Goldsmith.—There is not, *in my opinion*, a more pleasing and triumphant consideration," &c. Addison.—" He made preparations for recovering England of which, *during his absence*, he had, *by Henry's intrigues*, been so unjustly defrauded." Hume.—In these, and similar instances, the usage of German orthography would admit no comma before, and after, the words printed in Italicks.

(b) The Germans rarely put a comma, in the middle of a sentence, before the conjunction und, and; where the English generally add that sign of distinction.

(c) In German, a comma is invariably placed before a relative pronoun, which is, in English, very often omitted.

(d) The infinitive mood with the preposition zu, to, preceding it,* is always separated by a comma from the verb, which governs it. Examples: Ich freue mich, Sie zu sehen, I rejoice to see you; er fürchtet sich, seinen Vater zu beleidigen, he fears to offend his father; er glaubt, diesen Satz erwiesen zu haben, he thinks he has demonstrated this position; um diesen Zweck zu erreichen, opferte er alle andere Rücksichten auf, to attain this object, he sacrificed all other considerations. In the last example, the infinitive with zu stands in the first member of the sentence, and the comma is, there, put after it. This separating comma before the infinitive, is, however, only required, when that mood is accompanied with other words, which it go-

* See Part II. chap. 1. sect. 2.

verns, as in the instances above. When it stands alone with zu, as in ich wünſche zu ſchlafen, I wish to sleep; er verſucht zu tanzen, he attempts to dance; er wagt zu reiten, he ventures to ride; ich verlange zu wiſſen, I desire to know; hört auf zu reden, cease to talk; and especially, when this infinitive is governed by a substantive, or adjective: as, Luſt zu ſpielen, an inclination to play; das Vergnügen Sie zu ſehen, the pleasure of seeing you; der Wunſch gelobt zu werden, the wish of being praised; begierig zu wiſſen, anxious to know: in those circumstances, the comma is omitted.

The other signs of punctuation are used in the same manner by the Germans, as by the English. All these marks serve to enable us to read, with a proper tone, and distinction, the sentiments of the writer: and they are rightly employed, when, by their application, that object is attained. It is obvious that, on account of the peculiar turn, that is intended to be given to a sentence, and the particular mode, with which the writer may conceive the effect, which is to be produced by his expression, they must sometimes obey the will, or fancy, of an individual, rather than the rules of general practice. But their function is accomplishe when they convey the sense and design of the writer. Thus, after certain words, a comma, or another point, may be adopted, in some instances, when commonly they are not followed by a similar mark of separation. This modification of the laws of interpunction is not to be confounded with the fantastick novelties, which capricious persons have, at different times, endeavoured to introduce into this part of orthography.

4. The sign of *Apostrophe* (') is to be used

(a) In the genitive case of proper names. It is then prefixed to the genitive termination, which generally is *s*, sometimes *ns*, and *ens:* as, Agricola's Feldzüge, Agricola's campaigns; Plato's Gespräche, Plato's dialogues; Lessing's Trauerspiele, Lessing's tragedies; Hölty's Gedichte, Hölty's poems; Götze's Predigten, Götze's sermons; Uz'ens Schriften, the writings of Uz.

The application of the apostrophe is often to be recommended, on the ground that it leads to an easy discrimination of proper names. For example, by means of this sign, we are enabled to ascertain, that the nominative case of Götze's is Götze, and not Götzen; of Uz's Uz, not Uze, or Uzen. But to gain this advantage, it must be carefully and accurately placed, before the genitive termination. As it is certainly useful in some proper names, I see no reason, why we should not admit it in all, though the practice is, as yet, not generally established; and the more so, as it might also serve for a distinction to proper names from common appellatives.

(b) The apostrophe should be employed, when the vowel *e* is, by contraction, thrown away, where properly it ought to remain. For example: Er sprach's, for sprach es, he spoke it; sage mir's, for mir es, tell it me; war's gut, for war es gut, was it good; ich versteh' es, or versteh's, for verstehe es, I understand it; Freund' und Feind', for Freunde und Feinde, friends and foes; böse' und halsstarrig, for böse, bad and obstinate. In the inflection both of nouns and verbs, a similar contraction is frequent; but, in general, not indicated by the apostrophe: as, Des Buchs, for

Buches, of the book; er lobt, for lobet, he praises: er lobte, for lobete; gelobt, for gelobet. Only where the pronunciation might suffer a change, if the omission of the *e* were not understood, it should be marked, as in er reis't, for reiset, he travels; in which the letter *s* should be pronounced soft, as it would be before the *e*, previously to the contraction. If the word were written reist, without the apostrophe, there would be a risk of the *s* being uttered sharply, as in er reißt, he tears. This would produce an inaccuracy in the language. Thus it would be well to write erlös't, for erlöset, redeemed; er ras't, for raset, he raves. But the surest way of preventing any mistake, in pronunciation, is to avoid such ejections.*

The apostrophe has, like other things, been perverted, and abused, by innovators, who thought they might render the German language a service, by introducing this orthographick sign, with all those privileges, with which it is invested in some other modern tongues. They removed by it every vowel, which happened to be followed

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* Sometimes, however, they are not to be avoided, for example, when the metre comes into question, as in this passage of Herder's Zerstreute Blätter, Vol. 1. p. 21. (Gotha 1791):

Träget das Schicksal dich, so trage du wieder das Schicksal,
Folg ihm willig und froh; willt du nicht folgen, du mußt.

In the second line, folg should have the apostrophe, folg', as it is put for folge, and the *g* must retain the pronunciation it has in folge, which it would not do, if it were merely considered as a final *g*.

by another vowel, under the false notion of obviating disharmony. But it is seldom that the German language requires such an expedient: and the use of that abbreviation is confined within narrow limits.

5. The *Hyphen*, or sign of conjunction, (-, or =) is made use of

(a) When a word, at the end of a line, must be divided, for want of space. The division takes place, according to the syllables, as in English, only with the difference that this partition is solely determined by the pronunciation. When there is a consonant between two vowels, it is generally assigned, as the beginning letter, to the second syllable. For example, the word *writing* would be thus separated, in German, *wri-ting;* whereas in English, regard is had to etymology, conformably to which it is spelt *writ-ing*.

(*b*) Sometimes in compound words, as Freundſchafts-Bund, league of friendship.

(*c*) When two, or more, compound words, having their last component the same, stand together, and when the last component is omitted in the prior word, or words, and expressed only in the last: as, Schreib- und Redekunſt, the art of writing, and speaking. The component Kunſt belongs to both words, Schreibkunſt, art of writing, Rede-kunſt, art of speaking: but is only once expressed.

SECTION III.

ON THE PRONUNCIATION OF LETTERS.

If the rule of Quintilian*, "Let words be so uttered, that each letter may denote its appropriate sound," were established in all languages, the present subject would be attended with fewer difficulties, than it actually is. As to the German language, it is but justice to remark, that the power and the meaning of the letters, and the nature of the sounds, are less vague and undetermined, than is the case, more or less, in several other modern tongues. But it is not an easy undertaking, in general, to teach pronunciation by writing, without the assistance of a teacher's voice. You act upon the eye, instead of the ear, which is the proper organ for this species of instruction. The only way of imparting it, in that manner, is by comparing the letters and sounds of the language which is to be learnt, with those of a language already known. Such a comparison, however, is not always to be obtained. One language may have sounds, to which nothing similar is to be found in another. In such circumstances, some have thought, that a delineation, or description, of the form and changes, which the organs of speech assume, in pronouncing, would lead to a successful imitation of the sounds; but, on experience, it will be found, that this is a very precarious help to de-

* Inst. Or. I, 11. *Ut expressa sint verba, ut suis quæque literæ sonis enuntientur.*

pend on. The task is much facilitated, when a comparison with several foreign languages may be resorted to: and of this expedient we shall, to a certain degree, avail ourselves, throughout this section. The whole attempt will still remain imperfect: and the student cannot expect to make himself master of the pronunciation, unless by an intercourse with the natives. But notwithstanding these discouraging circumstances, the contents of the present division will not appear to be without their use. They will induce a more attentive consideration of the subject, than perhaps would be afforded by oral instruction alone. This will undoubtedly be wanted to supply the deficiencies of the former; but the written rules will, reciprocally, prove a beneficial support to the lessons of the master. With this persuasion, I have thought it worth while, to enter, with some degree of minuteness, into the following details.

VOWELS.

𝔄, 𝔈, 𝔍, 𝔒, 𝔘, 𝔜.

𝔄 (A).

This vowel has, I believe, in no language of Europe, that acute sound, which is assigned to it in English: I mean that, which, for instance, is heard, in *hate*, *state*, *male*, *gale*, and is, in English grammar, called the long sound.

In German, the *A* is pronounced, as it is in the French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and other languages: which seems to be between the short *A* of the

English in *hat, man,* and their broad one, in *hall, ball.* It approaches the sound of *a* in *ah, father,* and that of *au,* in *aunt, gauntlet.*

A is in some words doubled, by which no other change is effected, in the pronunciation, than that of rendering the vowel more full, and long. Examples: Der Aal, the eel; das Haar, the hair; die Maas, the river Meuse; die Waare, merchandise.

E (E)

has four different sounds:

1. The broad, or open,
2. The acute, or elevated,
3. The slender, and
4. The obscure, or short, sound.

1. The broad sound of E resembles that of the long English *a,* in *name, fate;* or of *ai,* or *ay,* in *air, day:* and is the same with the *ê,* or *è, ouvert* of the French, and the accentuated *è* of the Italians.

It takes place, when E concludes the first, or middle, syllable of a word, not the last. Therefore, leben, to live, is pronounced nearly as *laben;* der Beſem, the broom, as *bazem.*

Some words are excepted: Die Céder, or Zéder, the cedar; Cléve, Cleves, the name of a place; die Démuth, humility; Eden, Eden, paradise; die Ege, the harrow; Epheu, ivy; ewig, eternal: jeder, each; je and jemahls, ever; jemand, somebody; jener, jene, jenes, he, she, it, or that; Irene, a proper name; die Lampréte, the lamprey; die Méve, the sea-gull; die Muskéte, the musket; die Paſtéte, the pasty; Péter, Peter; die Régel, the rule; régie-

ren, to govern; die Scéne, the scene; Schwéden, Sweden; Schléſien, Silesia; die Siréne, the Siren; die Tapéte, the hangings of a room; die Trompéte, the trumpet; wénig' little in quantity; die Zéhe, the toe of the foot. In these, the E has the acute sound, contrary to the foregoing rule.

The broad sound is not admitted, when an *h* follows; except in a few words: as, Stēhlen, to steal, pronounced *stalen*; fēhlen, to fail; verfēhlen, to miss; der Befēhl, the command; befēhlen, to command; empfēhlen, to recommend; entbēhren, to want; hēhlen, verhēhlen, to conceal; der Lēhmen, the loam; nēhmen, to take; die Kēhle, the throat; das Mēhl, the flour; zēhn, ten. The Upper Saxons also sound the *e* broad, before *h*, in the following*: Dēhnen, to stretch; drēhen, to turn; die Fēhde, the feud, or warfare; lēhnen, to lean; die Sēhne, the sinew; ſich ſehnen, to long after; verſehren, to damage; wēhen, to blow; wēhren, to guard against; zēhren, to consume. The Lower Saxons abide by the rule, and pronounce the words, last mentioned, with the acute sound.

In the following words, the broad sound is heard, though E is not at the end of the syllable: Begēgnen, to meet; bequēm, commodious; das Brēt, the board; die Brēzel, the bun; dēr, dēm, dēn, article; die Erde, the earth; ērſt, first; das Erz, the ore; hēr, hither; der Hērd, the hearth; das Kēbsweib, the concubine; nēbſt, besides, prep. das Pferd, the horse; quēr, awry; rēgnen, to rain; der

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* See Adelung's System (Lehrgebäude der Deutſchen Sprache), Vol. I. p. 262.

Schmēr, the grease; das Schwērt, the sword; ſegnen, to bless; der Stēg, the path; wēr, who; werden, to become; wērth, worth; der Wērth, the value; das Nēſt, the nest, (according to the Upper Saxon way of pronouncing.)*

When a contraction has taken place, E retains its broad sound, though it should be in the middle of a syllable: as, er lēbt, he lives, contracted from, er lebet.

When the E is doubled, the sound is always acute, though the Upper Saxons speak it broad, in die Bēēre, the berry; das Hēēr, the host, or army; das Mēēr, the sea; der Spēēr, the spear; der Thēēr, the tar.

2. The acute sound of E is that of the Italian unaccented *e*, and the French *é fermé*. I believe, this sound exists in the English language, though I am at a loss to elucidate it sufficiently by examples. If I may trust to my ear, I think, it is heard in the pronoun *they;* and perhaps also in *hay*, dried grass.

The acute sound has its place before the letter *h:* as, Die Ehre, the honour; die Ehe, matrimony; ſtehen, to stand.

However, in some words, which have been enumerated before, the broad sound prevails, though an *h* follows.

The acute E is also heard before *th*, because this stands for *ht*, as will be shown hereafter; for instance, in die Bēthe, the name of a plant; das Kathēder, the professor's chair, or desk.

It moreover sounds acutely, when it is doubled; as, in

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* The Lower Saxons pronounce several of the words, mentioned in this exception, with the acute sound: as, Erſt, Erz, Schmer.

die See, the sea; der Thee, the tea; das Beet, the bed in a garden, &c.

But the Upper Saxons pronounce the following words broad: Die Bēēre, the berry; das Hēēr, the host, or army; der Spēēr, the spear; das Mēēr, the sea; der Thēēr, the tar. See before.

Observe, that *ee*, is no more than *e* long, and must be uttered as one sound. It is used in monosyllabes, especially when *e* is the final letter. Likewise in die Beere, the berry; die Seele, the soul; der Kaffee, the coffee; die Armee, the army. When a word, ending in *ee*, is in the plural augmented by an additional syllable, containing an *e*, the double *ee* is then exchanged for the single: for instance, Die See, the sea, plur. die Sé=en, (not See=en), the seas; die Armee, the army, plur. die Armé=en (not Armee=en), the armies. For it is not the custom to write the *e*, in the same word, three times following.

From this double *e* must be distinguished two *e's*, by chance meeting together, each of which is pronounced separately: as, Be=endigen, to finish, a verb compound, of be, and endigen; ge=ehrt, honoured, the participle of the verb ehren, with the augment ge.

The acute, or elevated, sound of E exists in monosyllabes, ending in a consonant, though in these the double *ee* is frequently adopted: as, Das Beet, the bed of a garden; leer, empty. In ſtet, steady, constant; ſtets, always, continually; and ſchel, oblique, envious, the *e* is single: which the Lower Saxons pronounce acute, and the Upper Saxons broad.

And lastly, it occurs in those words, which have been enumerated, as exceptions, under the broad sound.

3. The slender sound of E is audible, before a consonant in the same syllable; and resembles the English *e*, in *bet*, *yet*, *help*. For example: Das Bett, the bed, pronounced like *bet*; das Feld, the field, pr. like *felt*.

But, in some words, the E, before a consonant, sounds broad, or acute, as has been observed.

4. Before any of the liquids (l, m, n, r), the E is obscure, or nearly mute: for instance, Die Diſtĕl, the thistle; der Athĕm, the breath; offĕn, open; das Meſſĕr, the knife; similar to the English *e*, in *opĕn*, *shapĕn*, *thistlĕ*, *metrĕ*. And thus obscure it remains, though one or more consonants should follow after the liquid: as, Liebĕnd, loving; ein liebĕnder, a loving person; die Tugĕnd, virtue; tugĕndhaft, virtuous; die Wiſſĕnſchaft, the science; geläutĕrt, purified; geläutĕrtes Gold, purified gold.

At the end of a word of more than one syllable, the E has a kind of half sound, which somewhat resembles the final *er* of the English, as in *watĕr*, and the final *a*, as in *umbrellă*, *sophă*. Examples of this sort are numerous, as there is a great variety of words ending in *e*; for instance, the first person of most verbs and tenses; also many substantives, and adjectives. Ich liebĕ, I love; ich liebtĕ, I did love; die Liebĕ, the love; die Händĕ, the hands; die gutĕ Frau, the good woman; das gutĕ Kind, the good child; gutĕ Leutĕ, good people.

The English, when they hear the *e* so pronounced, sometimes mistake it for their *er* final, which shows that there must be a resemblance between those two sounds. Therefore, following the sound of lobĕ, they would spell it *lobĕr*; die Stubĕ, *stubĕr*. But in the words alluded to, nothing like an *r* should be heard.

This half-sound may be called the short sound of E. For we find it likewise in the middle of words, when the syllable it belongs to is short, or, which is the same, void of accent: as, liebĕtĕ, lobĕten. It is often thrown out, as in liebte, lobten.—The prefixes be and ge have always this half-sound: as, Bĕreden, to persuade; gĕſchehen, to come to pass.

When E is joined to I, it lengthens the latter, but loses its own sound. See letter I.

Note.—As a letter of the Alphabet, E bears the acute sound, which also serves for the name.

J (I)

is like the I of the Italians, which answers to the long *e*, of the English, or their *ee*; or *ie*, in *field, shield*: for these sounds are the same, according to Johnson.

It never has the sound of the long English *i*, in *fine, hide*; though it resembles the short *i*, in *milk, silk, with.*

It remains the same before, and after, all letters: and is not pronounced like *u*, when it stands before *r*; which is done in English, as in *flirt, bird.*

When pronounced long, that is to say, when the full accent rests upon this vowel, it generally has an *e* joined with it. *Ie* therefore is nothing but long *i*, equal to the English *ie*, in *field, shield.* Consequently, it would be erroneous, to sound each of these vowels separately: but die, is to be spoken *dee*; dieſer, *deeser*; Sie, *see*; Liebe, *leebe.* Originally, however, they were pronounced distinctly; and this mode of utterance still prevails in the

south of Germany, where they speak Wien, Vienna, as Wi-en; dieß, this, as di-eß. But in those parts they also give this double sound to the *i*, when *e* is not added in writing, as das Li-echt, for das Licht, the light.

The simple *i* is restored, when, in declining, the word receives an additional *e*. For it is not usual to write *i*, with two *e*'s after it. Therefore, die Poeſie, the poetry, in the plural die Poeſien, pronounced Poeſi-en, because it stands for Poeſie-en; die Copie, the transcript, pl. Copi-en; die Melodie, the melody, plur. die Melodi-en; das Knie, the knee, plur. die Kni-e, for die Knie-e. Thus, ich ſchrie, I cried; ſie ſchri-en, they cried, for ſie ſchrie-en. In such instances, *i* and *e* are sounded by themselves. Likewise, in the following words: Das Hi-eroglyph, the hieroglyphick; die Hiſtori-e, the history; die Comödi-e, the comedy; die Lili-e, the lily; Schleſi-en, Silesia; Spani-en, Spain; der Spani-er, the Spaniard; die Ari-e, the air, musick.

I is also lengthened by the addition of the letter *h*, especially, when a consonant follows after it, in the same syllable: as, Ihm, to him, ihn, him; ihr, you; ihnen, to them; ihre, theirs, ihren, to theirs. The *h* is, however, not frequently used, as a sign of length, after *i*; and hardly in any other words, besides those just now mentioned.

Among the various innovations, which have been projected in the German language, the omission of those signs of length has been attempted; but they were too well established to lose their ground.

The simple *i* is used long, in some words, for the sake of distinguishing them from others of the same sound, written with *ie*. For example: Die Fiber, the fibre, to be

discerned from das Fieber, the fever; wider, against, different from wieder, again; die Mine, a mine (in fortification) —die Miene, a feature of the countenance. Die Bibel, the Bible, is also written with a mere *i*.

When more than one consonant follow after *ie*, the sound becomes short: as in der Dienſtag, the Tuesday; das Viertel, the quarter; vierzehn, fourteen; vierzig, forty; ich gieng, I went: ich hieng, I hung; er giebt, he gives: though it would be more regular, in such words, to make use of the simple *i*.

O (O)

has the sound of the English O, viz. when long, that which is heard in *bone, stone, over, obedient;* or of *oa*, in *boat, oar, coal:* when short, it resembles the *o*, in *lot, got, trot.*

The German O always keeps its genuine sound, and admits of no such variations, as occur in some English words, for example, in *son, come, done, attorney,* in which *o* is pronounced like a short, or close, *u;* or in *move, behove,* where it sounds like a double *o;* or in *off*, where the sound is between *o* and *au.*

O is sometimes repeated, to show that the sound is long; or *h* added for that purpose. But let it be particularly observed, that the German *oo* is different from the English, and nothing more than long *o*. Examples: Das Loos, the lot; das Moos, the moss; das Moor, the morass; das Ohr, the ear; der Sohn, the son.

Ü (U).

This vowel is the same in the German, as in the Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese languages; that is to say, when long, it sounds like the English *o*, in *to*, *do*, *move*, *prove*; or like *oo*, in *hoot*, *boot*, *cooler*; or like *ou*, in *soup*, *youth*. When short, it resembles the obtuse *u** of the English, in *bull*, *full*, *bushel*.

It is never pronounced like the long *u*, in *use*, *mule*, *fuel*; nor like the short, in *dull*, *gull*, *custard*.

It was formerly doubled in some words, when the sound was to be lengthened, as in Muuś, jam; but, at present, this reduplication is out of use.

Ÿ (Y),

as a vowel, by itself, has the sound of the French *u*, and the German ü, of which see below. Thus it is, generally, pronounced in words derived from the Greek, in which it stands for the ψιλον†. It occurs, however, but

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* See Lindley Murray's English Grammar, p. 16.

† It is probable, the Romans pronounced it in the same manner. For they confounded it with the vowel *u*, which seems to have had the sound of the French *u*. This appears in the word *Sylla*, which was also spelt *Sulla*; and in *lacrymæ*, which was likewise written *lacrumæ*, from the Greek δάκρυα. Thus *Suria*, for *Syria*, in some editions of Tacitus. Ann. II, 77, 78, 79, 81, 82, 83. *Clupeus*, for *clypeus*, or in an abbreviated state

seldom, and, I believe, only in foreign terms, and proper names. The Dutch have it in their language, and pronounce it as the long English *i*. The French assign to it the sound of their *i* (English *ee*); and call it the Greek *i*, *Igrec*. In imitation of them, it is by some Germans spoken in the same manner, viz, like *i*. But the other mode is, undoubtedly, to be preferred*.

Most frequently the ŷ is seen in coalition with the vowel *e*, and it thus forms a diphthong, equivalent to the German *ei*, or the long *i* of the English. As it expresses no other sound than the last mentioned, for which the language already has a sign, it appears to be superfluous. And we may observe of this letter, in the German alphabet, what Johnson† said of it, in the English, namely, that "we might want it without inconvenience, but that we have it." It seems to have been introduced into German orthography, as a substitute for long *i*, being

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(upon some ancient coins) *Clu* for *Cly*. See a note by Gruter to Tacit. Ann. II, 83. ed. Gronov. Amstel; 1685. It seems to be that sound, which Quintilian (Inst. Or. I, 4) describes as being between *u* and *i*. *Medius est quidam U* et *I literæ sonus*.

* Mr. Adelung, the chief of German grammarians, does not seem to have made up his mind upon this subject. In his Orthography, p. 26, he decidedly asserts that *y* should, in sound, be exactly the same as *i*; but this he contradicts, p. 245, by saying, that in words taken from the Latin, and derived from the Greek, it ought to be pronounced almost like *ü*.

† Grammar of the English Tongue.

originally written *ii* or *ij*.* Hence it is, in the vulgar schools, sometimes called *ii*, or double *i*; and by common penmen often marked with two dots, ÿ. Therefore, they write Junÿ, Julÿ, instead of *Junii*, *Julii*, which properly are the Latin genitive cases. The power of *i*, being given to ÿ, is evident in the following words: Hoya, Hoyerś-werda, names of towns; and in the interjections, huy! denoting a rapid motion, pfuy! denoting shame, *fi!* which are pronounced as Hoïa, or Hoja, Hoïerśwerda, or Hojerśwerda, and huï, pfuï. This explains the nature of the *y*, in composition with *e*; and accounts, at the same time, in some degree, for its use in the English language.

But as this letter might be dispensed with, would it not be adviseable to discard it from the alphabet? It must be retained in proper names, and foreign words, and on that grouud it claims a place. And when it stands for *i*, custom pleads in its favour. It remains for us to ascertain, when it ought to be admitted in that capacity: and this we shall attempt, when we speak of the diphthongs, *ei*, *ey*.

DIPHTHONGS.

Closing with e: Ae, Oe, Ue.

With i, or y: Ai, Ay, Ei, Ey, Oi, Oy, Ui.

With u: Au, Aeu, Eu.

The diphthongs are, in German, pronounced less

* The Dutch retain the double, *i*, *ij*, in their orthography; the Danes likewise in some words, as in the pronoun *hijn*.

broad, than some of them are, in other languages*. The sounds, of which they are composed, are, for the most part, so melted together, that they bear the semblance of mere vowels. For this reason, the propriety of calling them diphthongs has been questioned; and those especially, which close with *e*, have been denied that name. But important as this argument may appear, from the zeal of those who are engaged in its discussion, it will be found that nothing by it is altered in substance. For if in compliance with custom, any one chooses to distinguish, in the alphabet, the compound signs of vowels, by the denomination of diphthongs, where can be the harm? So the French name their *ai*, though it hardly differs from their *ê* or *è*; and the English bestow that appellation upon their *ae* and *oe*, the same in sound as *e;* and upon *ai*, *ay*, the same as *a*. It should be recollected, that an alteration in the names, or terms, does not always profit the science, and may frequently embarrass it.

With respect to the diphthongs that close with *e*, it is usual, in the German characters, to put the *e* above the small letters, ä, ö, ü. In large letters, it is at the side, as Äe, Öe, Üe. Instead of the *e* at the top, two dots are often employed, to indicate the diphthong, as ä, ö, ü. These dots I hold to be a corruption of the *e*, from the current hand-writing, which, when hastily written, resembles two small perpendicular lines; and being trans-

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* For example, the *au*, *aw*, *ou*, of the English; the *au*, *eu*, of the Italians; and *ou* of the Portuguese.

ferred into the printed alphabet, it has thus degenerated*.

Ae, ä, ä, (Ae).

This diphthong, when long, that is to say, when spoken with the full accent, is like the English *a*, in *mane;* or like *ay*, in *day*, *pray*. Consequently, it coincides with the French *ai*, in *j'aimai*, and the *è ouvert* of the same; likewise with the accentuated *è* of the Italians. It is, therefore, the same with the open *e* of the Germans themselves, of which see before.

When two, or more, consonants follow after it, the broad sound is exchanged for the slender, equal to the English *e*, in *held*, *vex*, *sell*, *rent;* as, Die Hände, the hands, pronounced *die Hende;* er läßt, he lets, or leaves, pr. *lest;* er fällt, he falls, pr. *felt*. The broad sounds are, in such instances, always abandoned, the accent of the word being supported by the double consonant, as will be shown in the section on the accent.

Oe, ö, ö, (Oe).

The English have nothing to answer to this sound, when long. But when short, it resembles their *u*, in *gull*,

* Mr. Adelung, however, remarks in his Orthography, p. 131, that the dots were used, in printing, previous to the *e*.

dull, custard, us, concussion; or their *i*, in *flirt, bird,* or the *o*, in *son.* Thus the German ö is pronounced, when it is followed by more than one consonant: as, Die Hölle, hell, pr. *Hulle;* der Tölpel, the boor, pr. *Tulpel;* der Klöpfel, the mallet, pr. *Klupfel.*

The long sound of this diphthong is nearly the same as the French *eu*, and may be produced by the English long *a* being uttered, with the lips rounded, and contracted: as, Die Höhle, the cavern; öde, deserted, solitary.

Ue, ů, ü, (Ue).

Here also the English language leaves us destitute of a comparison. This diphthong resembles the French *u;* and may be imitated, in English, by uttering the long *e*, or *ee*, with rounded and projecting lips.—In some provinces they pronounce ů like i, or the English long *e;* but this is erroneous.

It may be observed, that the sounds ö, ů, or the French *eu* and *u*, are acquired by the English with some difficulty. The reason is, that they have nothing correspondent, in their own tongue. The only way to facilitate the attainment of them, seems to be that mode of uttering *a* and *e*, which has been pointed out.

Ai, or Ay, (Ai, or Ay)

sounds like English *i*, in *kite*, or like *y*, in *sky;* and is, therefore, the same as the German *ei, ey;* though some maintain, and perhaps not without reason, that it is

different, and ought to be pronounced broader. It occurs only in a few words, such as der Kaiſer, the Emperour; der Laie, the layman: der Main, the river Main; die Saite, the cord, or string, of an instrument; der Rain, the brim, or brink; der Hain, the grove; die Waiſe, the orphan; Baiern, Bavaria; der Baier, the Bavarian; der May, the month of May. In the middle it is to be written *ai*, at the end *ay*.

Sometimes this diphthong is employed, in der Waitzen, the wheat; das Getraide, the corn in general; baitzen, to hunt or bait: though *ei* is more usual.

Ei, or Ey, (Ei, or Ey)

is pronounced as the long *i* of the English, in *fine, kind*.

Ey, should be put: 1. at the end of words. 2. For the purpose of distinguishing terms of the same sound, and of different significations: as, ſein, his, and ſeyn, to be. 3. In compounds, when the component has the *y* before the composition, as beyſtehen, to assist; from bey, and ſtehen.

Oi, or Oy, (Oi, or Oy)

the same as in English. It is only met with in a few proper names: for instance, Groitzſch, Boitzenburg; and in die Boy, a sort of woollen cloth, baize.

Ui, (Ui)

has, by some writers, been substituted for ů, with which

it has the same sound : but, as the innovation was unecessary, it very deservedly has been neglected*. Duisburg, the name of a town, is sounded like Dûsburg†.

Au, (Au)

approaches the sound of the English *ou*, or *ow*, in *our*, *loud*, *cow*, *power;* and of the Italian *au :* yet it is neither so broad as the former, nor drawn out so much, in pronouncing, as the latter. In the Italian *au*, both vowels may be distinctly perceived, whereas, in the German they coalesce so closely, as to produce one consolidated sound.

This, however, may not be sufficient to enable the reader to speak that diphthong with accuracy ; and he must, therefore, have recourse to the assistance of a native. In the mean time, he may without great errour, give to it the sound of the English *ou*, or *ow*.

Aeu, âu, (Aeu)

has nearly the same sound as the German *eu*, resembling the English *oi*. It ought perhaps to be uttered, with lips more contracted and rounded, than *eu*.

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* Properly speaking, there was nothing new in it ; for the diphthong occurs in the most ancient German writings. It was, however, broached as something novel.

† See Adelung's Orthography, p. 143.

Eu, (Eu)

similar to the *oi*, and *oy*, of the English, in *boil*, *toil*, *joint*, *point*, *boy*, *toy*; and to the *eu* of the Italians. Yet there is a difference between these, and the German sound; for which the pronunciation of a native must be consulted.

CONSONANTS.

1. Simple: b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, z.

2. Compound: ch, chs, sch, ck, gn, kn, ph, pf, ps, th, ß, tz, wr.

B, (B).

At the beginning of a syllable, or before a vowel*, it is

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* This is to be understood of a vowel in the same word. It does not even apply to compounds; for in these the pronunciation of the components is, in a manner, distinct. Therefore, die Abart, a variety in a species, composed of Ab and Art, is spoken *ap-art*; liebäugeln, to interchange amorous looks, composed of Liebe, *love*, and äugeln, *to ogle*, like *liep-äugeln*.

like the English *b*. But when it ends a syllable, or stands next to the final consonant, or consonants, not being liquids, it generally is pronounced like *p*, as, ab, off, like *ap;* ob, whether, l. *op;* das Lob, the praise, l. *lop;* das Kalb, the calf, l. *kalp;* er lebt, he lives, l. *lept;* er lobte, he praised, l. *lopte;* der Abt, the abbot, l. *apt;* der Krebs, the crawfish, l. *kreps;* der Herbst, the autumn, l. *herpst,* das Obst, fruit, l. *opst;* hübsch, pretty, l. *hüpsh.*

Something similar is to be met in other languages; for instance the French, in which the compressed and close sound of *b*, at the end, is, in pronouncing, frequently exchanged for the more easy one of *p**.

The original sound, however, is retained in German, at the end of a syllable, when the next begins with a *b;* as in die Ebbe, the ebb; die Krabbe, the crab; die Flabbe, die Labbe, large hanging lips; or with a *d*, as das Gelübde, the vow—not *epbe, krapbe, Gelüpde,* which would

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* The practice is common in many languages: it is even found in the Russian. And it appears from Quintilian (Inst. Or. 1. 7), that the Romans pronounced the *b*, at the end of a syllable, like *p*.—*Quæri solet in scribendo, præpositiones sonum quem junctæ efficiunt, an quem separatæ, observare conveniat: ut cum dico,* obtinuit: *secundam enim* b *literam ratio poscit, aures magis audiunt* p. Thence *b* at the end of a syllable is found changed in Latin, into *p*, not only when a *p* follows, but also before other consonants. Thus *Fortuna Opsequens* is read on some Roman coins, instead of *Obsequens.* See Eckhel Doctrina Numorum Veterum Vol. VII, p. 24

be hard to pronounce. Likewise in words, in which the letter *e* after *b*, is, by a contraction, omitted: as, Das Diebsgeſindel, a pack of thieves; die Schreibgebühr, the clerk's, or copist's, fee; die Schreibart, the style of writing; die Hebamme, the midwife; das Knäblein, the infant boy; das Knoblauch, garlick—for das Diebesgeſindel, die Schreibegebühr, die Schreibeart, die Hebeamme, das Knäbelein, das Knobelauch. But when *t* follows after *b*, it is pronounced like *p*, though a similar omission of the *e* had taken place; for instance, Geliebter, for Geliebeter, a beloved person, sounds like *geliepter;* ich lobte, for lobete, I praised, l. *lopte.*

The sound of *b* may vary in the same word, when by an additional letter, or syllable, its situation is altered: for example, das Lob, the praise, is spoken *lop*, because *b* concludes the syllable; the genitive case, des Lobes, of the praise, is not to be pronounced *lopes*, but *lo-bes*, because a vowel follows after the *b*, and, with this, it begins a new syllable.

B, in the pronunciation of some English words, is left out before *t*, as in *debt*, *doubt;* but such elisions do not exist in German.

C, (C)

before the vowels a, o, u, and the diphthong au, and before a consonant, is pronounced like *k:* which is the same as in English.

Before e, i, y, ä, ö, ü, ei, ey, ie, it is like *ts*, and the same as the z of the German, and the sharp *z* of the Italian language. Thus, Centaur sounds like Tsentaur; Cicero l. Tsitero; Cylinder, l. tsylinder; Ceylon, l. Tseylon; Cäſar, l. Tsæsar; the Latin *cœlum*, l. tsœlum.

In some proper names, it is pronounced like *k*, before â, ô, û, as in Cärnthen, Carinthia, Cöln, Cologne, Cöthen, Cüſtrin, names of places. Not unfrequently, der Cörper, the body, is written, instead of Körper, *k*. In these instances, it would perhaps be better to substitute *K*.

From the above it appears, that *C* partly shares the force of *K*, and partly that of Z; and, consequently, may be considered as superfluous, in the alphabet. On this ground, it has been condemned by some writers, who, in its room, adopt *k* and *z*, as the occasion requires. It must, however, be preserved in foreign words, and proper names; and it is also wanted for the composition of some double consonants: so that it cannot be entirely relinquished. It should, therefore, be suffered to remain, where it is established by long usage, though no other reason should be obvious.

D, (D).

This consonant is of a similar nature with *B*: namely, it sounds like the English *d*, at the beginning of a syllable, or which is the same, before a vowel in the same word*; and like *t*, at the end of a syllable. Therefore, das Bad, the bath, is pronounced *bat*; die Hand, the hand, *hant*; der Hund, the dog, *hunt*; der Advocat, the lawyer, *atvocat*. That difference of pronunciation is also to be met with in other languages.

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* Provided the word is not a compound. For in these, each component has its separate pronunciation: as, die Handarbeit, the work of the hand, l. *hant-arbeit*; die Mundart, the dialect, l. *munt-art*. See note to letter B.

When a word, ending with *d*, is, in declining, augmented, so that *d* no longer remains at the end, but begins the next syllable, then the soft sound is restored. For instance, die Hand, is pronounced *hant;* plur. die Hände, pr. *hän-de*, not *hänte*, because *d* is no longer at the end of the first syllable, but commences the second, or stands before a vowel, in that word. Thus der Hund, pr. *hunt;* pl. die Hunde, pr. *hun-de*, not *hunte*.

This letter keeps its original power, when another *d* follows: as Der Widder, the ram; Eddertitz, Eddeſſe, Eddishauſen, names of places; Nidda, Nidder, names of rivers. And likewise, when *e*, or *i*, is left out, by contraction: as, Du fandſt, thou didst find; der Tadler, one who finds fault; der Adler, the eagle; der Schuldner, the debtor; die Ordnung, order, arrangement; die Handlung, the deed, action; dem Würdgen, to the deserving, &c. for fandeſt, Tadeler, Adeler, or Adelaar, Schuldener, Ordenung, Würdigen; in which it would be false to pronounce *d* like *t*. To these may be added some words ending in *ling;* as, Der Findling, the foundling; der Fremdling, the stranger; blindlings, blindly; in which *d* usually retains its soft sound*.

Dt was formerly written in many words that, by the present age, are spelt with *t* or *tt*: as, Das Brodt, the bread; das Schwerdt, the sword; which are now expressed

* Adelung (Orthogr. p. 164) thence infers the rule, that it is always soft before the derivative syllable *ling*, though he admits, that in der Wildling, a wild, unruly person, it is often pronounced hard, like *wiltling*.

by Brot, Schwert. That double letter is only continued in a few words: for instance, in todt, dead; die Stadt, the town (to distinguish it from die Statt, the place), and in such as have suffered an elision between *d* and *t*: for example, gesandt, sent, from gesendet; ein Gesandter, an ambassadour; beredt, eloquent, from beredet; gewandt, versed in a thing, from gewendet; verwandt, related to, from verwendet.

F, (F)

perfectly the same as the English, in *full, find.*

When between two vowels, it is sometimes pronounced like the English *f* in *of*, which is equivalent to *v*. This, for instance, is done in the following words: Die Briefe, pl. the letters, or epistles; die Wölfe, the wolves; der Schwefel, the brimstone; der Hafen, the harbour; der Hafer, oats; zwölfe, twelve. That mode of pronunciation is not uncommon, even among those who value themselves on their correctness of speech*.

G, (G).

This letter has been mentioned in the introduction†. Its true sound is that of the English *g*, in *go, gum, get, give, frog.* Thus it should always be pronounced: but some exceptions are to be noticed.

At the end of a syllable, after a vowel, it is frequently

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* Adelung (Orthogr. p. 166) calls it a fault.

† Page 8 and 11.

spoken like the German *ch* :* as. Der Tag, the day; er fragte, he asked; wir klagten, we complained; er bog, he bent; er trug, he bore; der Weg, the way; ewig, eternal; selig, blessed :—like *tach, frâchte, klâchten, bôch, trûch, wêch, ewich, selich.* This mode of utterance is derived from the Lower Saxon dialect: the Upper Saxons are apt to substitute the hard sound of *k;* pronouncing, for instance, Krieg, war, *kriek;* Berg, mountain, *berk;* Tag, day, *tak.*—When a *g* follows, the original pronunciation remains, as in die Flagge, the flag of a ship; die Dogge, a large kind of dog. This is also the case, when a word, ending in *g*, receives, by inflection, an additional syllable: as, Der Tag, gen. des Tages; der Krieg, dat. dem Kriege; ich trug, sie trugen. But, in truth, it should every where keep its place.

Between the vowels *i* and *e*, it is scarcely heard: for example, die Seligen, the blessed, sounds almost like *Selien;* die Meinigen, my family, l. *Meini-en;* die Fittige, the wings, l. *Fitti-e.*

When preceded by *n*, it is, at the end of some words, pronounced like a gentle *k:* as, in der Ring, the ring; der Gesang, the song, or hymn; das Ding, the thing; der Klang, the sound; ich fing, I caught; der Gang, the manner of walking, gait; jung, young; lang, long:—like *Rink, Gesank, Dink, Klank, fink, Gank, jünk, lank.* But when a vowel is added, by inflection, to any such word, *g* resumes its own sound: as, des Gesanges, dem Ringe, sie fingen. It maintains the same, according to some authors, in the middle of the following words: Die Jungfrau

* See below, p. 69

the virgin; vergänglich, perishable; empfänglich, susceptible; langſam, slow. In my opinion, it would be an advantage to the pronunciation, never to vary it.*

G, in the middle of a word, cannot begin a syllable. Therefore, der Finger, the finger, must be pronounced *fing-er*; Dinge, things, *ding-e*; Hoffnungen, hopes, *hoffnung-en*. Compound words are excepted from this observation. For example, angenehm†, agreeable, being a compound, is read *an-genehm*; angefangen, begun; *angefangen*; ungeduldig, impatient, *un-geduldig*.

When *n* follows after it, in the middle of a word, that letter is, in pronunciation repeated before the *g*. This applies chiefly to foreign words, for instance, the Latin *magnus*, which is spoken as if written *mang-nus*; *lignum*, as if *ling-num*.

In the word das Genie, the genius, it has the soft sound of the French *g*, which somewhat resembles the English *sh*. For the word itself is French, though it is generally received.

H, (H)

is aspirated, as in the English words, *have*, *hold*, *helmet*.

Between two vowels, the aspiration is less strong, and

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* I would, however, not venture to speak so positively, as the writer in the Monthly Review (for May, 1808), who says, that the former is *decidedly* a faulty pronunciation. For it is impossible to disregard the prevailing usage of the country.

† Though, in some places, they speak this very word *ang-enehm*.

sometimes hardly perceptible: as, in die Mühe, the trouble; blühen, to flourish; die Schuhe, the shoes.

When it ends a word, it has no sound at all: as, in früh, early; der Schuh, the shoe; der Floh, the flea; das Stroh, the straw; ich sah, I saw. But its power returns, when the word increases by inflection: as, die Schuhe, the shoes; die Flöhe, the fleas; sie sahen, they saw. I say, by inflection, not by composition: for the latter alters nothing in the pronunciation. For example, in die Stroharbeit, straw-work, composed of Stroh and Arbeit, and in das Frühobst, fruit produced early in the season, of früh, and Obst, the *h* is void of sound.

Besides its quality as a letter, *H* is used as a sign, by which the length of vowels is indicated. It is, in this capacity, chiefly joined to vowels (and sometimes to diphthongs), when a liquid (l, m, n, r), follows: as, Der Stahl, the steel; das Mahl, the meal, or banquet; der Stuhl, the stool, or chair; zahm, tame; die Bahn, the path, or career; die Fahne, the ensign, or standard; die Ehre, the honour; wohl, well; mehr, more; ihm, to him; ihn him; ihr, you; die Uhr, the clock, or watch; fühlen, to feel. In all these examples, the *h* shows that the vowels are long; and it is always to be considered as a sign of length, when it does not begin a syllable.

When a *t* is in the same syllable, *h* is generally united with this letter, preserving its influence over the next vowel, either antecedent or subsequent: as, in thun, to do; der Muth, the spirit, courage; roth, red; die That, the deed. In the words, der Thurm, the tower, and der Wirth, the landlord, the vowels are not lengthened by the *h*; which must be considered as exceptions.

The lengthening *H* is observed to have been introduced into writing, since the 15th century, and to have gradually obtained authority, till in the 17th it was universally established. It most probably arose from the aspirate, or full breath; which, when inserted in the middle of a syllable, must naturally prolong it. Something like this may be perceived in the elecution of the Irish, and perhaps existed in the ancient Greek.* After the German language had begun to be cultivated, it seems to have been one of the successive improvements, to divest it of many of its rough and guttural sounds. This appears in several instances; for example, words which had formerly been expressed with a strong gutteral *ch*, were, by degrees, written without it: for das Vieh, the cattle, was substituted das Vieh; rauch, rough, was succeeded by rauh.† In the same manner, the original sound of *h*, in the middle, or at the end, of a syllable, whatever it might be, whether a guttural, or a mere aspirate, seems to have been given up: and though it was preserved in writing, nothing of its nature remained, except what before was

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* The *spiritus asper* in Greek, is, for instance, inserted in the middle of a syllable, before and after ρ.

† A striking illustration of the above is furnished by the adjective hoch, high; which, in its first adverbial form (see adjectives), retains the *ch*, but in the other forms exchanges it for the simple aspirate, as hoher, hohe, hohes; der Hohe, &c. In compound words the *ch* remains, as in der Hochmuth, haughtiness; der Hochverrath, high-treason, &c.

only adventitious, I mean, the effect of making the adjoining vowel long. Even now, this alteration may, in some words, be traced. Schmähten, to chide, is pronounced without sounding the h between ä and t: but it is ascertained, that this word was formerly schmähelen, with the second h aspirated, being derived from schmähen; with which die Schmach, contumely, is connected. Thus sehen, to see, and gehen, to go, are often contracted into sehn, gehn; er siehet, he sees, most frequently into sieht; Ansehen, appearance, into Ansehn. Thun, to do, was probably written tuhen*; theuer, dear, may have been teuher; Theil, part, Teihel.

Such was, in my opinion, the origin of the prolonging *h*.† It was, afterwards, appropriated as a grammatical sign of length, without any regard to derivation. Yet it is not admitted, as such, throughout the language. The orthography of many words was too firmly established to receive it. Of this kind are the monosyllables: as, schon, already; die Flur, the fields, the plain; die Spur, the vestige; der Schwan, the swan; der Plan, the plan; and others, which, though pronounced long, reject the *h*, as an index of their quantity. With these may be joined such as double their vowels, for the purpose of making them long: as, der Aal, the eel; das Meer, the sea; das Boot, the boat, &c.

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* Mosheim actually adopted this mode of writing.

† Adelung (Orthogr. p. 194, 246, 248, 168), supposes that this *h* took its origin from the *th*, which, he says, existed, at first, as a mere modification of the letter *t*, and afterwards served to give more tone to the vowels near it.

The lengthening *H* has not escaped the attempts of orthographick innovators, but their efforts to banish it from the language, have, in this as in other instances, proved fruitless.

J, (J, consonant)

resembles the English *y*, in the beginning of a word, and before a vowel, as in *ye*, *year*, *yes*, *youth*; or the Italian *j*. It chiefly occurs at the commencement of words: as, ja, yes; jagen, to chase: jeder, each; das Joch, the yoke.

K, (K)

is like the English *K*. When a double sound is required, *c* is put before it, as in English. This can be necessary only after a vowel: as, Der Nacken, the neck behind; das Becken, the basin; der Stock, the stick; and even then, not always. But after a consonant, it is a useless addition, and ought to be excluded, where general custom does not defend it. It is, accordingly, erroneous to write, das Marck, for das Mark, the marrow; das Werck, for das Werk, the work. In proper names, this, as other anomalies, must be suffered to remain.—The ck has been objected to by certain reformers, who, according to their several fancies, have replaced it by k, or kk. Their notion, however, has not obtained any great currency.

When *K*, in the middle of a word, is preceded by a consonant, the pronunciation refers it rather to the foregoing, than to the following syllable, as denken, to think, pronounced *denk-en*.

L, M, N, P, (L, M, N, P)

are the same as in the English, and other languages

Q, (Q)

is always joined with the vowel *u*; it then has the sound of *k*, in every language, the *u* being more or less heard. In English, the pronunciation dwells long on the *u*, and produces a broad, or extended, sound: this is also the case in Italian; but the Germans utter it short, which makes the sound of *qu* more slender, than it is in those tongues. Yet the *u* is not entirely omitted, as is done in French.

R, (R).

This consonant is, in a great degree, deprived of its natural force and shrillness, by the English mode of pronunciation; but it has them full and entire, in German, where it is uttered with a strong vibration of the tongue. In English, this sound is particularly slight at the end; whereas the Germans pronounce it very distinctly.

In der Rhein, the Rhine, die Rhone, the Rhone, the *R* is followed by *h*: which is copied from the Latin *Rhenus*, and *Rhodanus*.

S, (S)

has two sounds, as in English,

the sharp, and

the soft.

The sharp sound is that which is heard in *sink*, *sit*, *salt*,

so ; and at the end, in *this, thus, yes, surplus, stress, bliss, ass, fuss.*

The soft sound resembles the English *s*, in the words, *bosom, wisdom, desire, present,* and at the end of *eyes, trees ;* or the *z*, in *zeal, zone, brazen, freeze, prize.* But the German *S* is not so close, and compressed, as the English *z*. It may be said to lie between the sharp *s* of the English, and their *z*.

The sharp sound takes place before a consonant, and at the end of words, and syllables. The English pronounce the final *s*, for the most part, soft, as in *was, is, eyes, trees ;* which is the reverse in German.

Before a vowel, or diphthong, in the beginning of a word, or between two, in the middle, *S* is always soft: as, Die Seele, the soul; ſagen, to say; dieſer, this; die Roſe, the rose. Also between a liquid consonant, and a vowel: as, Die Hülſe, the husk; die Amſel, the ousel; die Gänſe, the geese; Hirſe, millet; die Perſon, the person. To which may be added such instances, in which *e* is thrown out after the *s*: as er bläſ't, he blows, for bläſet; er raſ't, he raves, for raſet.

The sharp sound may be doubled, and is then expressed by ſſ in the middle, and ß at the end of a word: as, Das Waſſer, (Was-ser) the water; laſſen, to leave, or let; wiſſen, to know; beiſſen, to bite; der Haß, hatred; das Schloß, the castle, also the lock; häßlich, ugly; er ißt (for iſſet), he eats.

The sound of vowels and diphthongs, before ſſ, as before any double consonant, (see the next section), is generally short, or slender. But in many instances, this double ſ is employed, in the middle of words, with the

power of the simple sharp ſ: where otherwise if ſ were put by itself, the sound would be soft. In those cases, the vowels keep their original fulness. For example, wir äſſen, we did eat, pronounced like *ás-en;* die Gröſſen, the great people, l. *grôs-en;* die Müſſe, the leisure, l. *Mús-e;* flieſſen, to flow, l. *flies-en;* grüſſen, to greet, l. *grüs-en.*

This has been considered as so peculiar a modification of the letter ſ, that it has been marked with a distinct sign, ß, and a particular appellation, namely *sz.* Such a mode of distinction does not seem to be superfluous, though the name may be deemed objectionable. We should, therefore, write ß, wherever the letter ſ departs from the rule, in the manner described: for instance, aßen, Muße, fließen, grüßen. When ß is found at the end of some monosyllables, in which the vowels are pronounced long, it is employed with a view to the inflection, and changes, of such words: as, ich äß, I did eat, ſie äßen, they did eat; größ, great, ein größer Mann, a great man; der Rüß, the soot, gen. des Rußes.

S appears, frequently, united with *ch;* and thus produces a strong hissing sound, equal to the English *sh*, in *shade, she, show.* But even when single, that hissing aspiration is, by many, given to it, if a *p*, or *t* follow. They pronounce ſprechen, to speak, as *shprechen;* der Spaß, the jest, as *shpass:* der Speer, the spear, as *shpeer;* das Spiel, the play, or game, as *shpiel;* ſtehen, to stand, as *shtehen;* der Stein, the stone, as *shtein.* They do not confine themselves to those two letters; but speak, in the same manner, in words beginning with *sk, sl, sm,* and *sc* (when c sounds like *k*). For instance, das

Skelet, the skeleton, as *shkelet;* der Slave, the Slavonian, as *Shlave;* der Smaragd, the emerald, as *Shamaragd;* der Sclave, the slave, as *Shlave;* der Scudo, an Italian coin, as *Shcudo.* Likewise, in the middle and at the end of words, between the letters *r* and *t:* as, der Durſt, the thirst, similar to *Dursht;* die Bürſte, the brush, as *Bürshte;* die Gerſte, the barley, as *Gershte;* der Fürſt, the prince, or sovereign, as *Fürsht;* garſtig, nasty, as *garshtig.* To this latter, however, they admit, that there are some exceptions, as the second person of certain verbs, du warſt, thou wast, du wirſt, thou becomest, du lehrſt, thou teachest: and the ending of the superlative degree in ſte, der erſte, the first, der ſchwerſte, the heaviest, &c. This way of pronouncing the *S* is, chiefly, prevalent among the inhabitants of Upper Saxony: but it has also been adopted by others, who have thought it a peculiarity of the High German. It is, in fact, nothing more than a provincial mode of speaking, in Upper Germany. There, this hissing aspiration is attached to the *S*, not only in the instances mentioned, but in many others; such as, *isht, bisht; Chrishtus, Versh, Marsh,* for iſt, biſt, Chriſtus, Vers, Mars. Hence it has transmigrated into the High German; but it should be regarded as an unwelcome intruder. It has nothing to recommend it to favour: neither analogy, nor euphony, can be alledged in its defence. The Lower Saxons, in their native idiom, are ignorant of this aspiration in the letter *s*, and it would, indubitably, be an advantage for the pronunciation of the High German, if their practice, were, in this particular, universally imitated.

T, (T)

the same as in English. Before *i*, with a vowel following, it sounds like *ts*: as, Die Auction, the auction; die Lection, the lesson; die Faction, the faction; die Portion, the portion; thus in pronouncing Latin, as *gratia*:—which words are read *Auctsion*, *Lectsion*, *gratsia*, &c. But when an *s* precedes, *t* keeps its proper sound, as *quæstio*.

V, (V).

There is not the smallest difference between this letter, and F: so that one of them might be removed from the alphabet. Words, even of the same origin, are promiscuously spelt with one letter, and the other: for instance, voll, full, and füllen, to fill; vor, before, and für, for.

Between two vowels, or diphthongs, it is by some pronounced like the English *v*: as in der Frevel, the crime; der Stüver, a German coin; der Sclave, the slave.

W, (W)

resembles the *V* of the French, Italians, Spaniards, and others, but not so exactly that of the English. For the *V* of the latter has in it a considerable mixture of the *f**, of which the German *W* is destitute. The English *V* is emitted with a strong pressure of the upper teeth to the

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* Hence it is justly considered as the flat *f*, and as bearing the same relation to this letter, as *b* to *p*, *d* to *t*, *g* to *k*, and *z* to *s*.

lower lip; but the W of the Germans comes forth, with only a slight contact of the teeth and the lip. It is very different from the English *W*, which is uttered with the lips contracted, or rounded, without touching the teeth, and sounds nearly like *oo*.

The sound of the German W seems to be between the *v* and *w* of the English. It demands particular attention; for the inhabitants of this country often fail in its pronunciation. Examples: Das Waſſer, the water; not to be spoken as *Vasser*, nor as *Wasser*, English; but the German W to have a sort of middle sound, between the English *V* and *W*;—thus, der Weg, the way; die Welt, the world; die Wolle, the wool; das Wunder, the wonder; ewig, eternal, &c.

W is mute, in English, before the letter *r*, as in *write*, *wrap*, *wrong*; and in some other instances, as *answer*, *sword*, *wholesome*: but it is never so, in German

X, (X)

sounds like *ks*: as in die Axt, the ax: die Hexe, the witch; das Exempel, the example—like *Akst*, *Hekse*, *Eksempel*.

Z (Z)

is, without any exception, pronounced as *ts*: for instance, Die Zahl, the number; zu, to; zehen, ten—like *Tsal*, *tsu*, *tsehen*. Consequently, it resembles the *z* of the Italians.

T is prefixed to Z, for the purpose of doubling its sound; therefore, ß (*tz*) is equivalent to *zz*, which the Italians make use of. This consideration will determine,

when *tz* ought to be employed. It is never required after a consonant, because there can be no need of a double letter; but it may, in most cases, be admitted after a vowel. It is proper to write, ſetzen, to put; but it would be less accurate to insert a *t* in das Herz, the heart, *Hertz*, because, in the latter, a consonant already precedes the *z*. The occasions, where *z* and *tz* should be used, have not always been justly distinguished; and some degree of confusion has thence arisen, respecting this letter. But the matter is very plain, if considered in the point of view, which has been stated. Some persons, in the mean time, have, by these irregularities, been provoked, entirely to deprive the *tz* of its functions; and where the double sound of *z* is unavoidably to be expressed, they write *zz*. But it will appear, from what has been said, that they have been too hasty in their proceeding.

Ch, (Ch).

The English language furnishes nothing, with which the sound of this character may be compared. I can, therefore, not hope, in describing it, to be understood by those, who are barely acquainted with their native tongue. This sound is twofold,

Guttural, and
Palatick.

The *Guttural* is entirely formed in the throat, and answers, in a great degree, to the Welch *ç* or *ch*, the Scotch *ch*, in *Loch*, and the Irish *gh*, in *Lough*; also to the Spanish *x*, in *dexar*, and the *j*, of the same, in *lejos*.

The German *Ch*, however, is not so deeply guttural,

as the examples adduced. It takes place, when joined to the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and the diphthong *au*. Examples: Ach, alas! das Dach, the roof; noch, yet; das Joch, the yoke; hoch, high; das Buch, the book; der Geruch, the smell; der Strauch, the shrub; der Rauch, the smoke. Those vowels are in some words full-sounded, as, brāch, sprāch, hōch, Būch; in others they are slender, as in nách, bóch, Gerúch.

The *Palatick* sound arises from a strong appulse of the breath against the palate; and is assigned to *Ch*, when in conjunction with *e*, *i*, *ä*, *ö*, *ü*, *äu*, *eu*. Examples: Der Hecht, the pike; schlecht, bad; das Licht, the light; der Dichter, the poet; die Dächer, the roofs; die Löcher, the holes, from the singular, das Loch; die Bücher, the books; die Sträuche, the shrubs; der Leuchter, the candlestick. It is also admitted with other vowels, when between them and the *Ch* a liquid intervenes, as, in mancher, solcher, durch.

In general, *Ch* stands at the end of a syllable; sometimes in the beginning, as in mancher, mancherley. The pronunciation, whether guttural or palatick, is then regulated by the vowels that follow.

Between *i* and *e*, it is scarcely audible: for instance, dem herrlichen, dem trefflichen; spoken like *herli-en*, *treffli-en*.*

At the beginning of some words, it sounds like *K*: as, Christus, Christ; der Christ, the christian; Christian, Christoph, proper names; christlich, christian, adjective; der

* The Monthly Review (May 1808) objects to this observation, but it is founded upon the practice of the natives.

Character, the character; die Charte, the map, or chart; die Charwoche, passion-week; Charfreitag, good Friday; das Chor, the choir or quire; die Chronick, the chronicle; die Chronologie, chronology; die Chur, the election; der Churfürſt, a Prince Elector of the German Empire; die Churwürde, the Electoral dignity—and other words, beginning with Chur.

In words, borrowed from foreign languages, for example from the French, it keeps the sound, which it has in those languages, as Charlotte, Chagrin, Chicane, Chevalier, Charlatan; in which it is pronounced like the English *sh*.

In old writings, it is often put for *K*. Foreigners, who are not acquainted with the true purport of this character, or unable to pronounce it, in the manner before mentioned, generally attribute to it the sound of *K*. This sound it has always, when an *s* follows. For

Chs, (Chs)

is precisely the same as *ks*, or *cks*. This, for instance, is perceived in the words, das Wachs, the wax; der Dachs, the badger, der Fuchs, the fox; der Flachs, the flax; die Büchſe, the box; die Achſel, the shoulder: which are pronounced like *Waks*, *Daks*, *Fuks*, *Flaks*, *Bücksе*.

But it is to be understood, that the three letters must constitute one character, and consequently all belong to the same syllable. For they may, by chance, meet, and have the same appearance; but being without those requisites, their pronunciation differs: as in wachſam, vigilant; nachſehen, to connive at; where the *s* does not appertain to the same syllable, in which the *ch* stands. For these words are read *wach-sam*, *nach-sehen*.

When an elision of any vowel has happened between *ch* and *s*, these characters must likewise be uttered separately: for example, des Buchs, for Buches, gen. case, from das Buch, the book; des Lochs, for Loches, from das Loch, the hole; er sprachs, for sprach es, he said it—which are not to be pronounced *Bucks*, *Locks*, *spraks;* but with the guttural sound, and *s* following, *Buch-s*, *Loch-s*, *sprach-s*.

Sch, (Sch)

like the English *Sh*, in *she*, *shine*, *dish*, *dashing*. The vowels, before this character, are often pronounced long: as, sie wüschen, they washed; sie dräschen, they thrashed; but more frequently short: as, wäschen, to wash; dréschen, to thrash; die Tische, the tables; die Muschel, the shell, or muscle.

It is to be observed, that *Sch* must form one character, in order to authorize that mode of pronunciation. Sometimes an *s* will accidently come before *ch*, without coalescing with it. Examples: Das Bischen, the little bt; das Röschen, the little rose—spoken *Bis-chen*, *Rös-chen*.

Ck (Ck), see K (K).

Gn (Gn), and Kn (Kn)

are not to be spoken through the nose, as foreigners are generally disposed to do; but in such a manner, as if a very light *e* were inserted before the *n:* for instance, die Gnade, the mercy, as if *Genade;* der Knabe; the boy, as if *Kenabe*. The insertion of this *e* will, at first, be a

great assistance, in the attainment of those letters, and may afterwards easily be laid aside.* The *K* is never mute before *n*, as it is in English, in the words *knife*, *to know*, &c. It must always be pronounced, in German.

Ph, (Ph)

is equivalent to *F:* as, Der Philoſoph, the philosopher, like *Filosof;* Der Epheu, the ivy, l. *Efeu.* It is the same in English.

The pronunciation of

Pf, (Pf) Ps, (Ps) and Wr (Wr)

may be facilitated by the interposition of a very short *e*, in the same way, as was recommended in *Gn* and *Kn:* for example, Der Pfad, the path; das Pferd, the horse; der Pſalm, the psalm; Wrisberg, a proper name —similar to *Pĕfad*, *Pĕferd*, *Pĕsalm*, *Wĕrisberg*.

Th, (Th)

is pronounced like T, and has never the sound of the English *Th*, or the Greek θ. The *h*, added to *t*, is merely a sign of length to the vowel next preceding, or next following. See letter H (H), p. 59.

Tz, (Tz)

See letter Z, (Z). p. 68.

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* The critick in the Monthly Review, (for May, 1808) magisterially asks, "Would he really have us pronounce *Gënade* ?"—No, I would not; nor would the Reviewer have thought so, if he had read the above with attention.

SECTION IV.

ON THE PRONUNCIATION OF WORDS, OR THE ACCENT.

BESIDES the sound of the single letters, another branch of knowledge is required, for the purpose of a right pronunciation, namely the *Accent*. By this is understood that stress, which marks a particular syllable, in speaking, and distinguishes it from those, with which it is connected. In the words, *ìron, fùlness, hàzard,* the first syllables have that prerogative: in *upòn, resist, belòw,* it is assigned to the last.

The accent is indispensable to the art of speaking. It is, in this respect, as essential to language, as the helm is to a ship, without which its movements would be wavering, and uncertain. It must, therefore, have existed in every tongue, that was ever spoken by mankind. The Greeks and Romans, though they possessed a well established prosody, which, in some degree, influenced the cadence and modulation of their speech, incontrovertibly made use of accent. The poetick quantity alone would have been inadequate to the ends of elocution.

As soon as language proceeds from mere articulation to coherency, and connexion, accent becomes the guide of the voice. It is founded upon an obscure perception

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I suggested the insertion of a slight *e* to those who are awkward in pronouncing those letters, as a means of facilitating the operation: and as such, I have found, from long experience, it is of essential advantage to beginners.

of symmetry, and proportion, between the different sounds that are uttered.* The notion of that symmetry and proportion must, of course, vary according to the diversity, which may be inherent in the primitive and elementary sounds of different languages, and the constitutional organization of the people, that speak them. It is a kind of mechanism, if I may be allowed to use a metaphor, which adapts itself to different nations, different habits, and circumstances. Conformably to this, we observe a characteristick variety, with regard to accent, in comparing the languages of Europe. Each of them has its peculiar mode of accentuation: the Italian, for example, generally lays the stress of tone on the middle syllable; the French, for the most part, removes it to the end; and in German, it is commonly attached to the beginning of the word. But the laws, upon which this depends, seem to have no other foundation, than the bent and tendency of the organs of speech, to which the ear has been habituated.

In the German language, I consider partly the loca-

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* We are speaking of the verbal accent, which regulates the pronunciation of words: besides which, there may be said to exist the oratorial, or declamatory accent, by which the tone of whole sentences is commanded. The former determines the force of certain syllables, the latter modifies the relative energy of words. The oratorial accent depends upon the will, and intention of the speaker; and is, accordingly, arbitrary, and variable: the verbal accent is subject to fixed rules.

lity of the syllables, partly the quality of the vowels contained in them, as the ground of the accent. Some of the vowels are, in certain combinations, held to be less susceptible of the energy of the voice, than others; of this description are *e* and *i*, as will be shown, in the progress of this section. But locality chiefly determines the accent: by it I mean the place, which a syllable occupies in a word. The tone, at first, assumed elevation by an uncertain impulse, or an obscure sensation of fitness, but this was, in the gradual formation of the language, settled into permanent custom; and constituted what is now called the accent. This appears to be the simple and natural way of explaining its origin.

Some ingenious men have accounted for it in a manner very different from the foregoing. It is said by one*, that it is always the radical syllable of a word, which bears the accent; and by another†, that which has most meaning, and signification. Those syllables, then, are called the principal ones, and as such, it is pretended, they are dignified, above the rest, with the accent. But let it be recollected, that the accent must have been of an early original; that language could not proceed far, without this conductor; that it must be referred to one of the first stages of civilization, in which not much was to be expected from grammatical speculation; and that, consequently, the source from which it flowed, could not be remote and hidden, but must have been obvious, and

* Mr. Adelung, in his system of the German Language, his Grammar, and his Treatise on Orthography.

† Moriz, in his Essay on German Prosody.

easy of access. To ascertain what syllable is the root of the word, which we are going to utter, to determine which has the most significancy, and power of meaning, and, according to this, to fix the accent, presupposes so much abstruse research in one case, and so much philosophical judgment and precision, in the other, that we cannot, in sober reflection, attribute such a process to the untutored minds of a rude nation. They made use of that auxiliary of speech, before they were conscious of its existence: they might have a latent perception of its influence, but could not possess a distinct idea of its operation, much less invent, and establish it, according to the rules of science. We could only imagine such a contrivance, as having taken place on similar grounds, by supposing a society of wise and learned men, who had entirely created the language. For how are we to reconcile it to common sense, that notions, which are now attained only by a few, should, in the earliest times, have been current, and familiar with the multitude. They must have accurately understood the anatomy of language, and known how to appreciate the relative value of the parts of speech.* Upon these niceties of discrimi-

* Mr. Morriz arranges the parts of speech, according to their intrinsick weight, and importance: in proportion to which, he says, they are, more or less, entitled to the accent. See his Prosody, p. 139 & 184. Hence the inference is natural, that, if that is the basis of accent, those, who first employed it, must have been aware of that principle. But this is more than improbable. He is not contented with that distinction of the parts of speech,

nation the theories, to which we have alluded, are built. But the nature of language is, I fear, little comprehended by him who can admit such a proposition. No search for radical syllables, no estimate of their innate power, led to the accent; it was rather the production of something like a mechanical process. The maxim, which Mr. Adelung himself sanctions*, namely, "that, whatever exists in a language in the form of general practice, and usage, has arisen from an obscure sensation (or perception) of expediency, or necessity, common to those who first employed the language; and that, therefore,

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but he remarks the various shades of difference, which each part may assume in peculiar situations. Thus he talks, p. 227, of one pronoun, as the mere reflection of another pronoun, or as the pronoun of a pronoun. Such speculations are, indeed, ingenious and subtile; but that qualification alone cannot give them any claim to our approval.

* See his System of the German Language (Lehrgebäude, der Deutschen Sprache); his work on the German style (über den Deutschen Stil); and his introduction to German Orthography (Anweisung zur Deutschen Orthographie). In the last work p. 13 & 14.—So says Quintilian, Inst. Or. I. 6. *Non enim, cùm primum fingerentur homines, analogia demissa cœlo formam loquendi dedit; sed inventa est postquam loquebantur; et notatum in sermone, quid quomodo caderet. Itaque non ratione nititur, sed exemplo: nec lex est loquendi, sed observatio; ut ipsam analogiam nulla res alia effecerit, quàm consuetudo.*

the principles, upon which such practice and usage are founded, can neither be abstruse, nor complicated," is particularly applicable to our subject: and it is to be wondered at, that the same author, who recurs to it, on other occasions, should have been entirely unmindful of its truth, where it is so strikingly evident.

To support such artificial doctrines, as those which have been mentioned, it is not sufficient to allege, that, in many instances, the fact corresponds with the theory, that the accent is, indeed, frequently attached to such syllables, as upon enquiry, and consideration, prove to be the radical, or most significant ingredients of the word. This is mere coincidence, where it is met with, and cannot serve to extort from us our assent to notions, which, when examined, cannot stand the test of reason. But even that coincidence is by far not so general, as may have been presumed. I have not been at much trouble to seek for exceptions: but I will quote some, that have readily presented themselves. Mr. Moriz somewhere*, introduces the word Nachhall, which literally signifies after-sound, i. e. the remaining vibration of sound, a sort of echo, being composed of the preposition nach, after, and the substantive der Hall, the sound. Of these two syllables, I think, that Hall should be considered as the radical, or significant one: but it does *not* receive the accent. Mr. Moriz, it is true, represents nach as the significant, or principal syllable in this word: that, however, can only be an oversight, arising from the blind par-

* Prosody, page 218.

tiality for his system; for the idea, that a preposition could have precedence before a substantive, would be at variance with the whole tenour of his opinion. That word, therefore, forms an exception. But I can add many similar compounds: for example, those beginning with the prepositions, Ab, an, auf, durch, für, hinter, in, mit, über, um, unter, vor, wider, zu, zwiſchen—as, Abzug, Anſchlag, Aufſtand, Durchmarſch, Für'ſprache, Hinterhalt, In'begriff, Mitgift, Uebergang, Um'ſchlag, Un'tergang, Widerſpruch, Zutritt, Zwiſchenraum. In all these words, the insignificant and accessory syllables, (for in that light the prepositions, must, according to Moriz and Adelung, be regarded, when compared to substantives) are accentuated. This makes against their hypothesis, whereas it perfectly answers to our supposition of locality. It might, perhaps, by some dexterity of argument, be made out, that what is insignificant and accessory, in one place, may be significant, and radical, in another: the advantage, and success, of this mode of reasoning I willingly relinquish to the authors. But not to confine my observations to compound words alone, I will subjoin those, which, being derived from the Latin and Greek, have the accent, not on the significant, or radical syllables, but generally on their endings. For example, Die Natur, nature: die Nation, the nation; die Religion, religion; der Poet, the poet; der Student, the student; der Barbar, the barbarian; der Canal, the canal; das Organ, the organ; die Cultur, culture; das Axiom, the axiom; die Million, the million; der General, the general; der Elephant, the elephant; and others. We find no difficulty in rendering this circumstance consistent with the principles of our

system, by simply saying, that, by a kind of tacit agreement, the locality of the accent in Greek and Latin words, when germanized, was fixed upon the termination. But how would the other theorists solve this problem, according to their rules? I shall here leave the subject, which appeared to me, for several reasons, worthy of discussion; and proceed to the details of this section.

Syllables are either accented, or not.—The accent itself is of two kinds. 1. The complete, or full accent, which is assumed by the principal sound in a word. 2. The half, or demi-accent, which gives to the syllable, to which it is assigned, a more distinct and forcible pronunciation, than those possess, which are devoid of all accent; though it is inferior, in energy, to those, to which the full accent is applied. For example, in *mèntal*, *mèrcy*, *hàlter*, the first syllables bear the full accent, but the last have none: in *meekness*, *softness*, *ointment*, the first are likewise possessed of the full accent, but the last are pronounced more distinctly, than in the former words. This may be called the *half*, or *demi-accent*.

We shall first treat of

THE FULL ACCENT (')*

1. In *monosyllables* it does not exist, when they are by themselves. For in one insulated utterance there can be no comparison of length, or brevity. But when two, or three monosyllables meet together, one of them

* What I term the *full accent*, corresponds with Quintilian's *Syllaba acuta*. See Inst. Or. I, 5.

may, according to its importance, be measured against the rest, and have an emphasis similar to accent, though, in fact, it is not the same. For instance, der Mann, die Frau, das Kind: here the article and substantive constitute, as it were, one word; and the accent is affixed to the latter, being superior in signification. If the stress were laid on der, die, das, it would be understood, that the attention was to be chiefly directed to those words, consequently, that they were used pointedly, or as demonstratives. This is farther exemplified in the following: Er iſt hier, Sie ſind da, Er hat das: each of which phrases may be looked upon as a word of three syllables, and may, therefore, receive the full accent; but where it is to be placed, is determined by the intention of the person speaking. For Er iſt hier, may be accentuated in three diverse manners, at the option of the speaker. If the pronoun is the principal object of attention, it will be, thus: Er iſt hier, *he* is here; if the verb, thus: Er iſt hier, he *is* here; if the place, it will be, Er iſt hier he is *here*. It is the same with the other instances: as, Sie ſind da, *they* are there; Sie ſind da, they *are* there; Sie ſind da they are *there*. So, Er hat das, *he* has that; Er hat das, he *has that*; Er hat das, he has *that*. This is, however, not the verbal, but the oratorial accent, of which notice has been taken, in the beginning of this section.* The verbal accent with which we are engaged, is not arbitrary as the latter. Monosyllables, therefore, are

* Page 75, note.

only susceptible of the oratorial accent. Where that is not applied, their tone remains ambiguous.*

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* Moriz classes the monosyllables in regard to their value, as parts of speech, by which, he maintains, that their capability of accentuation is determined. They are arranged by him, in the following manner: Substantive, adjective, verb, interjection, adverb, auxiliary verb, conjunction, pronoun, preposition. As they are here placed, so they are said to have a respective claim to accent, one in preference to the other. See Essay on German Prosody (Verſuch einer Deutſchen Proſodie), p. 137 and 189. But this assumption is not supported by fact: frequent deviations occur from the line that is drawn. In Du und ich, thou and I, und, being a conjunction, ought, according to that classification, to have the accent, rather than the pronouns, that stand near it: but it certainly has not. In the words, und er ſprach, it might be thought to be accented. These are contradictions, which allow of no explanation, though our author attempts it, by saying that the same conjunction appears in a different point of view, when it connects sentences, and when it merely connects words. Perhaps our rule of locality would afford a more uniform reason. For by combining monosyllables into imaginary words of more syllables, you may place the accent, where the doctrine of locality points it out, and you will probably often be right. But the truth, nevertheless, seems to be, that, properly speaking, monosyllables can only have the oratorial accent. In a succession of monosyllables, I believe, it

1. Words derived from the Greek, or Latin, which have suffered a change in their termination, to make them German. Such are, Virgìl, Homèr, Horàz, Montàn, &c. proper names. Likewise, Die Natùr, nature; die Religiòn, religion; die Natiòn, the nation; die Figùr, the figure; die Muſìk, musick; die Perſòn, the person; der Poèt, the poet; der Docènt, the teacher; der Studènt, the student; der Altàr,* the altar; der Prophèt, the prophet; der Regènt; the regent; der Tyrànn, the tyrant; der Cluàk, a common sewer; der Canàl, the canal, or channel; das Orgàn, the organ (of speech, hearing, &c.); die Cultùr, civilisation; der Barbàr, the barbarian; der Baròn, the baron; &c. from *Virgilius*, *Homerus*, *Horatius*, *Montanus*, *natura*, *religio*, *natio*, *persona*, *figura*, *musica*, *poeta*, *docens*, *studens*, *altare*, *propheta*, *regens*, *tyrannus*, *canalis*, *organon*, *cultura*, *barbarus*, *baro*. These words have the accent on the last; Pìndar, from Pindarus, however, has it on the first. The word Paſtòr, denoting a parish priest, is commonly pronounced with the accent on the last, though it has undergone no change in its termination.

2. Some other words, not properly German: as, Der Alàun, alum; der Altàn, the balcony; der Aniès, or Aniſ, anise; der Barbìer, the barber; der Bombàſt, bombast; der Faſàn, the pheasant; der Granàt, garnet; also prawn, or shrimp; der Granàtapfel, pomegranate: der Huſàr, the

* Thus Adelung accentuates it: see his Orthography, p. 113.

II. *Words of two syllables* have the full accent on the first: as, Das Fènſter, the window; die Fèlder, the fields; die Gàſſe, the street; die Stùbe, the chamber.*

Except:

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invariably happens, though we may not be sensible of it, that one of them is thus accented. Quintilian says, it must be so, In. Or. I, 5. *Ea vero, quæ sunt syllabæ unius, erunt acuta, aut flexa, ne sit aliqua vox sine acutâ.*

* Moriz indirectly bears testimony to this rule, by saying, p. 225, that the German language naturally abounds in words, which form trochaick feet, that is to say, in dissyllabick words, with the first syllable accented, or long; and p. 236, that it has no pure pyrrhichian feet, that means, no dissyllabick words, with both syllables, short. This would, in the German language, be impossible: for, in words of more than one syllable, the accent must be placed somewhere, and render that syllable long, compared to the other. Hence the scarcity of spondees is also to be explained. No words of two syllables can have both accented: and, as the accent generates the prosodick quantity, in the German language, no such word can be a spondee, or have both syllables long. In the Latin language, it seems, the accent was affixed in a similar manner. For Quintilian observes, that words of two syllables always bore it on the first. Inst. Or. I, 5. *Est autem in omni voce ütique acuta, sed nunquam plus unâ, nec ultima: ideoque in dissyllabis prior.*

hussar; das Kamèl, the camel; der Kapàun, the capon; das Klyſtièr, the clyster; der Krakèel, the quarrel; der Lackèy, the lackey; der Moràſt, the morass; der Rabieß, the radish; das Revier, the district, or quarter; der Rubìn, the ruby; der Rubicèll, Spinèll, precious stones; der Saffiàn, Morocco leather; der Soldàt, the soldier; der Spinàt, spinage; der Spiòn, the spy; das Stackèt, a fence of pales. —Some of these words may be referred to the first exception.

3. Certain compound adverbs, and conjunctions namely such as begin, with:

all, als: allein, allhièr, allda, alsbàld, alsdènn.

an: anbèy, anheìm, anhèr, anjètzt, annòch.

bey, bis: beyſelt, bishèr.

da: daſèrn dahèim, daſelbſt, daràuf, daràus, dabèy, davòr, daràn, davòn.

der, die: dereinſt, diewèil.

ein, emp, ent: einhèr, empòr, entzwèy.

fort: fortàn, forthìn.

für: fürwàhr.

gleich: gleichwie.

hier: hierhèr, hierhìn.

hin: hinàb, hinàn, hinàuf, hinàus, hindùrch, hinein, hinfòrt, hinwèg.

in: indèm.

je: jedòch, however. But jèmals, ever; and the pronoun jèmand, any one, or some one, have the accent on the first.

mit: mithìn.

nach, nun : nachbèm, nachhèr ; nunmèhr, (sometimes pronounced nùnmehr).

ob : obgleich obſchòn, obwòhl.

um : umhèr, umhìn, umſònſt. Add kurzùm, warùm.

vor : voràn, vorbèy, vorhèr, vorhìn.

wo : wobèy, wodùrch, womìt, woràn, woràus, worìn, wovòn, wozù

zu : zuèrſt, zulèzt, zunächſt, zuvòr.

It sometimes happens, that the accent varies in similar words, according to the view of the person speaking : for instance, in those beginning with *da, hier, wo:* as, dàher, hièraus, wòraus. The accent, being laid on the first, makes them strong demonstratives.

4. The prefixes, *be, emp, ent, er, ge, ver, zer,* are not susceptible of any accent, therefore, words, beginning with such prefixes, have the accent on the last : as, betràf, empfìng, entſprach, erſchràk, gelòbt, verzòg, zerrànn.

A caution is necessary, in the application of this rule, with reference to *be* and *ge.* In some words, these are not prefixes, but radical syllables, and consequently cannot be deprived of their accent, if their place entitles them to it. Of this kind are : bèben, to tremble ; bèten, to pray ; der Bèſem, the broom ; gèben, to give ; gègen, against ; gèhen, to go.

III. *Words of three syllables* have the full accent on the first.

Except :

1. The following : balſàmiſch, lebèndig, hanthìren, ſtolzìren.

2. Words from the Greek and Latin, that have been germanized, by a change in their termination, as: Das Axiòm, the axiom; die Action, the action; die Million, the million; die Billiòn, Trilliòn, the billion, trillion; der Elephànt, the elephant; der Patriòt, the patriot; der Generàl, the general; Epicùr, a proper name, &c. from *actio, millio, billio, trillio, elephantus, patriota, generalis, Epicurus.*

3. A few foreign words, which bear the accent in the middle: as, Die Faſéle, a kind of bean (Lat *phaseolus*); das Regiſter, the register; das Capitel, the chapter; die Cabàle, the cabal; die Mechànick, the science of mechanicks.

4. Some proper names, as Uly'ſſes, Achìlles, &c.

5. Certain compounds, namely, such as begin, with:

all: allwiſſend, allegemèin, allbereìt, allemàhl, allenfàlls, allerdings, allerley, allerèrſt, allerhànd, allerwà'rts, alleſàmt, allezeìt, allernà'chſt, Allweisheit, allmà'chtig, allmà hlig, allthà'gig, allzuviel, allzuſehr.

aus: ausdrù'cklich, ausnèhmend, ausſprechlich.

bey, bis: beyſàmmen, biswellen.

da: dahìnter, darùnter, darù'ber, dawìder, dazwiſchen.

der, des: derhalben, dermàhlen, dermahleinſt, deshàlben, desgleichen.

durch, in compound verbs inseparable, never takes the accent: as, durchgèhen, durchlàufen, durchreiſen, durchſtreichen; but when separable, it has the full accent, as, dùrchreiſen, dùrchlaufen. See the compound verbs.

ehe, ein, einst: ehedèm, einànder, einſtmàlen, einſtweilen.

je, im, in : jedènnoch, imgleichen, (also, ingleichen), immìttelſt, indeſſen, inzwiſchen.

miss: in mißràthen, mißlingen, two verbs neuter; otherwise this prefix always bears the accent, in composition.

über. ûberàus, ûberèck, ûbereln, ûberhàupt, ûberhìn.

vor : in vornehmlich, vortrefflich, vorzû'glich, and other words, ending in *lich*, vor is unaccented; otherwise it takes, in composition, either the full accent, as in Vòrſehung, Vòrſtellung, or the demi-accent, as in vórgâ'ngig, vórlâ'ufig.

will : in willkòmmen, welcome.*

zu : in zugegen, zuwider. In other compounds it has the demi-accent.

6. Certain compounds, with the demi-accent on the first†. They are such as begin,

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* This word is not composed of der Wille, the will; but of an old adverb will, which Adelung (in his Dictionary), says, signifies *pleasantly, agreeably*, and still exists in some of the Lower German provinces. This accounts for the accent: for had it been from der Wille, the syllable will, as being derived from a noun, must have borne the demi-accent, as it does in willfâ'hrig, complying; willkû'hrlich, arbitrary. Whether will may not have been originally the same as the English *well*, in *welcome*, I will not decide: but the same particle, *well*, composes that word in the sister languages of the German, viz. in the Dutch, *welkom*, Swedish *vällkommen*, Danish *velkommen*.

† The sign of the demi accent is this (').

a. With *the syllable of a noun* (or *verb*) : as, fróhlò = cken, gróßmû'thig, lángweilig, léichtdènkend, léichtfertig ; from froh, groß, hoch, lang, leicht, adjectives ; glû'cksèlig, nóth= wèndig, from das Glück, die Noth, substantives ; báuſâ'llig, mérkwû'rdig, from der Bau, das Merk, substantives, or bauen, merken, verbs.

b. With the particles, *ab*, *an*, *auf*, *aus*, *bey*, *der*, *ein*, *fort*, *für*, *her*, *hin*, *los*, *mit*, *nach*, *ob*, *un*, *vor*, *zu* : as, ábwendig, ábſpènſtig, ánkömmen, aúfklâ'ren, aúsgèben, béyſtèhen, bárbieten, Dárleihe, eíngèben, hérkömmen, hingèhen, lóesprèchen, mítnèhmen, náchſèhen, náchſichtig, óbliègen, óbwal= tend, úndánkbar, únfreúndlich, úngû'tig, únènblich, únſchâ'tzbar, únzâ'hlig, vórſtèllen, vórſichtig, zúwènden, zúdringlich.

7. The prefixes *be*, *emp*, *ent*, *er*, *ge*, *ver*, *zer*, as has been already mentioned, never admit an accent : for example, befèhlen, empfínden, entfállen, erbrèchen, gehörchen, verdèrben, zerreíſſen.

IV. *Words of four syllables, and more,* in order to

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lable should be uttered, as if it were unconnected with the two that follow : as, froh=löcken, großmû'thig, an=kömmen, auf=klären, un=gültig, un=záhlig. The two last syllables are then pronounced by Rule II. It is not practicable to do justice to the demi-accent, before the full accent, in any other manner. Words beginning with *un*, are thus spoken. It should, therefore, be ún=dànkbar, as it is ún=freúndlich; not úndankbar, (˘˘), as it is sometimes pronounced.

facilitate their accentuation, may be bisected, that is to say, divided into halves, each of which then will have its own accent, as a word by itself, according to the foregoing rules.

Observe,

1. If they are compounds, the section is to be made where the components are joined, as in Mérk=wû'rdigkeit, Êrdbeer=bâ'ume, Fâſtnacht=ſpiele, U'naus=lô ſchlichkeit, U'naus=ſprèchlichkeit, Feld=pôſt=mèiſter.*

2. If they are not compounds, the division should be equal in words of four syllables, as in mûſi=kâliſch, Geſèll=ſchâften, ôffen=bâren, tâdel=hâfte, Â lter=thû'mer, Kô'ni=gìnnen,

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* In a word of four syllables, so compounded that, if reduced to three syllables, by cutting off the last syllable, the first and third would have the demi-accent, and the middle one the full accent, the section, should be in the middle, so as to make each half of two syllables, the first of which two syllables is to be accented. Of this kind is únbânk=bârer, únbânk=bâre, únbânk=bâres, in which the division, for the reason assigned, is not made at the point of composition, namely, after un, but in the middle, as if the word were no compound. Thus únſchâ'ţ=bârer, unſchâ'ţ=bâre, únſchâţ=bâres. In certain compounds, beginning with dissyllabick prepositions, such as, über, unter, wider, the division cannot be made use of, because those prepositions are accentless: for example, überrèden, unterbrèchen, widerſtrèben.

inſòn=berhèlt. In words of five syllables, it must naturally be unequal, as in Berthèi=digungen, vergeſèll=ſchàftet.

3. In words of four syllables, that partition does not take place, when the two first are totally void of accent, as in Agamèmnon; the stress is then laid upon the third, or the last syllable but one: nor, when the two last, or first and third syllables are unaccented; for, in this case, the second has the tone, as in Telèmachus, verfù hreriſch.

4. The same principles are to be applied to words of six or seven syllables, if any such occur. For example, Gerechtigkeitsliebe, which may be divided into three parts, Gerèch=igkeits=liebe.

The method of thus dividing long words, for the purpose of giving facility to accentuation, seems to answer that object in most instances, according to the foregoing observations. It will be found practically useful, whatever difference of opinion there may be in theory. For though it may be said that, even in the longest word, there is but one chief accent, it will be found more easy to conceive this in mind, than to express it by voice.

THE DEMI-ACCENT (′).

It has been explained before, what is meant by that term; namely, the tone of a syllable, which, though it has not the strongest sound in a word, is yet pronounced more forcibly, and distinctly, than others, which are said to be totally void of accent. Of this some examples have been adduced. For instance, to the last syllables

of *rùdiment*, *caùstick*, *fùlness*, *ìdleness*, *oùtlet*, the demi-accent is assigned, because they are discriminately uttered; whereas in *heavy*, *tèmporary*, *mòral*, *càndour*, *tèmple*, they are lightly passed over, so as not to produce a precise and accurate sound of the vowels, which they contain.

The demi-accent, in German, is peculiar to

1. All monosyllables, whether terminating with a vowel, or a consonant.

2. The vowels at the end of words: as, Minèrvá, Sòphá, àlsó, jètzó, U'hu. Except *e*, which is unaccented, as Freude, lóbe.

3. The syllables *aft*, *al*, *all*, *um*, *ar*, *ath*, *ei*, *eit*, *ing*, *inn*, *iss*, *um*, *ung*, *uth*, being terminations of words: as, Geſèllſchàft, tàdelhàft, Schlàcſàl, Nàchhàll, mù'hſàm, òffenbàr, Mònáth, Tà'ndelèy, Ràſerèy, Frèihèit, Jù'ngling, Kò'niginn, Finſterniß, Fù'rſtenthúm, Hàndlung, Armúth.

4. The same syllables, not being terminations: as, Schlàcſàle, Freihèiten; unless, from their situation, the full accent fixes on them, as in Geſèll-ſchàften, Tà'nde-lèyen. See the words of four syllables.

5. Some other syllables: as, *and*, *ard*, *art*, *eim*, *itz*, *old*, *on*, *or*, *orm*, *und*, *uft*, either as terminations, or in the middle. Examples: Heiland, Bàſtárd, Bàſtárde, D'heim, D'heime, Stièglitz, Hèrólb. Hèrólde, Ahor'n, Gèridón, Abgrúnd, Félskluft.

6. The prior syllables of certain compounds, alluded to before, báufà'llig, mérkwúr dig, léichtſinnig, &c.

VOID OF ACCENT, are

1. The prefixes, *be*, *emp*, *ent*, *er*, *ge*, *ver*, *zer*.— Examples are numerous: as, Befèhl, empfangen, entgègen, erfùchen, Gerìcht, vertràgen, zerreiſſen. It may not be amiss to repeat, that the prefixes *be* and *ge* ought not to be confounded with the original syllables of the following words, Bèſem, bèben, bèten, gèben, gègen, gèhen, Geribon.

2. Dissyllabick prepositions, in verbs compound inseparable, of four syllables: such as, hinter, ûber, unter, wider, in hintergèhen, ûbertrèten, unterrèden, widerſtèhen.

3. The syllables *e*, *el*, *ell*, *en*, *end*, *er*, *ern*, *et*, *ig*, *ich*, *icht*, being terminations, as in Fàrbe, Rà'thſel, hàben, Jùgend, Vater, Fèdern, lòbet, zwànzig, glû'cklich, fleiſchicht.

4. The same syllables, in the middle (unless they become liable to the full accent): as, rà'thſelhaft, lòbete, fleiſchichte.

Before the subject of the accent is dismissed, it will be necessary to add a few words concerning the *Vowels*, and *Diphthongs*.

THE SOUND OF THE VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

is either broad and long, or slender and short. *A*, for instance, is broad, or long, in the English words, *all*, *call*, *fall;* and slender, or short, in *father*, *fancy*, *glass*. The *i* is long in *field;* and short in *fill*, *fin*. The *o* long in *note*, *bone*, *home*, *over;* and short in *lot*, *trot*, *got*. This difference is also observable in diphthongs,

as in the words *receive*, *seize*, in which *ei*, is long; and in *forfeit*, where it is short.

I. The vowels and diphthongs have, in the German language, a *long*, or *broad*, sound:

1. At the end of a syllable, as in haben, beten, loben, Tugend.* The *e* at the end of words is excepted.

2. When a syncope, or contraction in the middle, has taken place, which chiefly happens by an ejection of the letter *e*. Examples: Labſt, labt, labte, gelabt, for labeſt, labet, labete, gelabet. Lobſt, lobt, lobte, gelobt, for lobeſt, lobet, lobete, gelobet. Sparſt, ſpart, ſparte, geſpart, for ſpareſt, ſparet, ſparete, geſparet. Schonſt, ſchont, ſchonte, geſchont, for ſchoneſt, ſchonet, ſchonete, geſchonet.

3. When a sign of length is added. This may be either

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* Though this principle generally prevails, it is not always duly regarded. A proof of this is the word Name, name, which some persons, and among them Mr. Adelung, (Orthography, p. 249.) insist upon writing Nahme. The lengthening *h* is here erroneously inserted, because a, from its situation alone, receives the full, and long sound. By omitting the *h*, the native appearance of the word, and its similarity to other languages (for instance to the English *name*, Swedish *namn*, &c.) is preserved, and it is, besides distinguished from nahm, preterimpf. of nehmen, to take. Thus Mr. A. writes, unnecessarily *bethen*, to pray; *biethen* to bid, (Orthography, p. 258.) for beten, bieten.

a reduplication of the same vowel, as in Aal, Meer, Boot; or an adjection of another vowel, as *e* to *i*, in Spiel, ſpielt; or the letter *h** as in Hahn, Fahne, ſehr, ihm, ihr, &c.

As exceptions from this rule may be considered the following words: Vierzig, forty; das Viertel, the quarter; der vierte,† the fourth; dieß, this; Dienſtag, Tuesday; wahrlich, verily; which, though provided with the signs of length, give to their vowels the short or slender sound, as if they were written *virrzig, virrtel, virrte, diss, dinstag, warrlich.*

4. In monosyllables, as in trāt, wēr, ſchōn, nūn.

Except,

a. The following, ob, an, bin, bis, das, des, es, gib, grob, hat, hin, im, in, man, mit, ob, Schmid, um, von, was, weg, zum.

b. And when two consonants follow after the vowel, as in bálb, bánn, báß, Géld, wóllt, Schúld, wénn.

Before ß, however, the vowels, and dipthongs are frequently long: as. āß, grōß, Fūß, ſṻß. Before ch they are also long in some words, as in Schmāch, hōch, Būch; and thus, sometimes, before ſch, as brāſch, wūſch.

5. In the last syllable of foreign words, where the

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* See p. 59.

† I think it proper to quote to these words Mr. Adelung's authority, (Orthography, p. 76,) who joins them with the rest, mentioned under this exception, though they are not, in every province, pronounced with the slender sound of the vowel.

main accent is at the end: as, Natūr, Orgān, Homēr, Horāz, &c. See above.

11. The vowels, and diphthongs, have a *short*, or *elevated*, sound,

Before two consonants: as, in áll, Fáckel, E'cke, óft, Húld, Hánd, Há'nde, Glánz, glá'nzen, vó'llig.

Except,

a. The following words: Ádler, Árt, Bārs, (a fish, the perch), Bārt, Bōrt, Bōrte, Bō'rſe, Brātſche, bū'ſter, Er'de, ĕrſt, Flō'ẓ, Gebērde, Grō'bs, Hārz, Hērd, Hērde, Hūſten, Kēbs, (in the compounds, Kēbsehe, Kēbsweib, &c.) Klōſter, Krēbs, Māgd, Mōnd, nēbſt, O'bſt, O'ſten, O'ſtern, Pferd, Pāpſt, Prōbſt, rō'ſten, Schārte, Schūſter, Schwārte, Schwērt, Stā'tte, ſtēts, tōdt, Trōſt, Trū'bſal, Vōgt, wērden, wū'ſte, zārt. According to Adelung*, these also are to be added: Jāgd, Nēſt, Quārz, Schmūtz, which some, especially the Lower Saxons, pronounce with the slender sound.

b. Those, which have undergone a syncope, or contraction in the middle: as, Lōbſt, lōbt, lōbte, gelōbt, for lobeſt, lobet, lobete, gelobet; ſpārſt, offenbārt, gehō'rſt, gehō'rt, ſchō'nſter, der ſchō'nſte, for ſpareſt, offenbaret, gehöreſt, gehöret, ſchönſter, der ſchöneſte.

c. Those which are supported by a sign of length.

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* Orthography, p. 65, 232 and 233.

SECTION V.

ON PROSODY.

THIS is the elementary science of versification. As verse is the compass of a certain number of words, measured by their syllables, the nature of these syllables is the principal object of prosody. They constitute metre, by their capacity of being either long, or short. A combination of such syllables makes a foot, several feet produce a verse. But to use these constituent parts with correctness, and propriety, it is necessary to understand their length and brevity, and the reasons, by which they possess those qualifications.

In the Greek and Roman languages, the measure of the syllables, or their *quantity*, was accurately fixed. Every syllable had acquired its invariable character, of being long, or short, either from the nature of the letters, which composed it, or from ancient and unalterable usage. The dimension of its sound was ascertained, and established, and, according to that only, the poet, or versifier, was at liberty to employ it.

The modern tongues of Europe have, strictly speaking, no laws of quantity. Their metres contain a limited portion of syllables, arranged together, more according to number, than by any precise rules of length, or shortness. The only restraint imposed, is, not to violate *the accent*, which controls, and governs the pronuncia-

tion*. The poet cannot be permitted to change the audible effect of the language; but conforming to this restriction, he may, as far as the mechanical part of versification is concerned, make use of the syllables, according to his will, and convenience. Such is the nature of modern prosody, in general, and of the German, in particular, as will appear from the subsequent investigations.

THE ACCENT, therefore, is the standard, by which metrical composition must be guided. It has been amply discussed, in the foregoing section, and here some application will be made of those disquisitions. A syllable, that has the full accent, in German, cannot be used otherwise than long. For, that accent consists in an ascension of the voice, which, while it is in the act of rising, requires a greater length of time for the complete emission of the sound, than is necessary in a syllable, that is not elevated above its level. In words of two, or three syllables, one syllable must inevitably be long, because one must necessarily bear the full accent. Of those syllables, which have not that accent, some are endowed with the demi-accent, and others are accentless.

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* It would be exceedingly faulty to accentuate any word, in a manner different from the universal custom; to read, for instance, metaphor, *metáphor;* philosopher, *philosópher;* diametrically, *diametrically;* again, *ágain;* below, *bélow;* liberty, *libérty;* library, *libráry;* minstrelsy, *minstrélsy.*

The latter are in their nature short: those that are half accented, or that have the demi-accent, being between the full length, and shortness, must be regarded as ambiguous, or common, half inclining to length, and half to brevity; and, consequently, as fit to be used in either capacity, as occasion may demand. As to the accentless syllables, or those that are properly short, it might perhaps be recommended, as a metrical accuracy, to all who write verse, never to employ them with the quality of length: but even the best poets transgress this line of correctness. They use those syllables long, without much scruple, when the necessity of the verse requires it*. But *this* limitation must be observed, that by transforming a short syllable into length, the full accent of the verse must not be destroyed: if that suffer, the fault is unpardonable. Monosyllables cannot have the full, but must have the demi-accent: for the former consists in a comparative elevation of voice, in one syllable, over the tone of another, which comparison cannot be instituted, when there is only one syllable by itself. Nor can they possibly be accentless; because it is necessary to pronounce them distinctly, and, in a manner, sonorously, to render them intelligible: and where the vowels in any syllable are thus heard, that syllable is said to be half-

* It is not difficult to meet with examples. The prefix ge, in the preterite participles, is accentless, and entirely short; but you will see it with a long quantity in Voss's Translation of Homer's Odyssee, 12th Book, v. 124, angeſtrengt; 266, gelangte.

accented, or to have the demi-accent. Now the demi-accent has, in prosody, a quantity between long and short, or, in other terms, is common: monosyllablss, therefore, are common, that is to say, may be used either as long, or short.. Two or three of them may be read together, as in one word, and the stress of declamation may assign to one the full accent, or main tone, which then becomes long in quantity, in comparison to the others. This is the *oratorial,* or *declamatory accent,* which is at the will, and depends entirely upon the feeling, of the writer, or speaker. It determines the tone in syllables of ambiguous quantity, bestowing length of sound wherever it falls, though it does not necessarily follow, that this accent should be exerted, whenever there is occasion to make a common syllable long. It is seldom practicable to fix the full accent, in words of four syllables, or more. When pronounced, such words sound, as if they were divided into parts, and the accent established according to these divisions. In fact, it appears, as if there were no full accent: and the absence of this leaves the syllables in a state of ambiguity. I am therefore inclined to say, that the syllables in words, which contain four or more, are common, that is, liable to be employed with the quantity of length, or shortness, as it may suit the purpose of the poet.

The accent according to what has been stated, is to be regarded as the source of quantity; nor can it be conceded, as some would assert, that the latter is independent of the former. With the accent, in our acceptation, is not to be confounded that distinctness, or acuteness of

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voice, with which, from some impulse of feeling, or meaning, the sound of a syllable may happen to be emitted. If in this example: Gerechter Gott, allgütig sind deine Wege, the syllables ge and all should be heard with somethiug like an emphasis, this is not to be taken for the accent, which, as the 4th Section has abundantly proved, rests upon a very different foundation.

The following rules for quantity, in German prosody, are the result of the preceding observations.

I. In words of two or three syllables, that syllable is long, which bears the full accent*.

II. In words of four syllables, or more, the full accent can seldom be distinctly fixed; but there generally remains a sort of equilibrium between the syllables, which seems to render them common. As such they may be often regarded, and employed at the will of the poet. Certain compound words retain, in a great degree, the stress of tone, which one or the other of the component parts had before the composition: and they are to be looked upon as exceptions from this rule of common quantity. For example, Allgütiger, composed of all and gütiger, has a prevailing accent upon the second, which could not possibly be equalised with the quantity of the preceding, or subseqnent syllables.

III. Monosyllables are common. They are parti-

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* Concerning the accent, the 4th section of this chapter must be referred to. Here, p. 84, 87, 90.

cularly liable to be affected by the oratorial, or arbitrary accent.

IV. Syllables that are half-accented, or, which is the same, have the demi-accent*, are common.

V. Accentless syllables, that is to say, those, which never admit an accent†, ought always to preserve a short quantity. But so far does the established freedom of the poets extend, that even those syllables are not unfrequently used as long.

The German language is capable of producing all the metrical feet, and consequently all the species of versification, which were known to the ancients. It is suited to hexameter, and pentameter‡; and avails itself of a variety of measures, in lyrical compositions§. I speak here of verse, without rhyme; though this auxiliary of modern poesy is likewise current, and as much in practice, as in any other tongue of Europe.

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* See Sect. IV, p. 92.

† See Sect. IV, p. 94.

‡ The English language revolts at these metres. In German, some of the most excellent poems have been composed in them. Kloptock's Messiah, Stolberg's and Voss's Translations of Homer, are written in hexameter. Herder and others have successfully made use of the pentameter.

§ See, for instance, the odes of Klopstock.

A word of two syllables must, in German, according to the accent, furnish either a trochee ¯˘, or an iambick. ˘¯ If the accent be on the first, it will be a trochee; if on the second, an iambick. But as one of the syllables must, of necessity, have a paramount accent, they cannot both have the same quantity. A dissyllabick word can, therefore, not naturally form either a spondee ¯¯*, or a pyrrhich ˘˘. However, by the assistance of monosyllables, these feet may be easily accomplished. A word of three syllables may make either a dactyl ¯˘˘, which is most common; or an anapæst ˘˘¯, or an amphibrachys ˘¯˘: but from the constitution of the German accent, it will not so readily yield a creticus, or amphimacer ¯˘¯; though, if the last syllable happen to be half-accentuated, it would be practicable. It would be difficult to shape it to a bacchius ˘¯¯, or an antibacchius ¯¯˘; and impossible to turn it into a molossus ¯¯¯, or a tribrachys ˘˘˘. When those feet are wanted, they must be made by a combination of different words. Thus the feet of four syllables are likewise to be produced; for of words, which have that extent themselves, there is not a great number. Among the tetrasyllabick feet, the choriambick ¯˘˘¯ is most familiar to the German language; and it is also the most pleasing. It is, frequently, effected by a con-

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* The illustrious Klopstock has celebrated this peculiarity of the German language, in his Ode to Sponda, a nymph, whose absence, or concealment, the poet laments.

currence of dissyllabick words, and, occasionnally, by words of four, or five syllables. The dijambus ˘˘¯¯, ditrochæus ¯˘˘¯, antispast ˘¯¯˘, may also be had, by an association of syllables, which the language, without much difficulty, is able to furnish.

In this manner, the substance of the German Prosody has been stated: but I deem it necessary, before I quit this topick, to take notice of a theory, more artificial than ours, which has been set up by an ingenious author.* As the principles of his system are entirely different from those, which we have adopted, our doctrine would lose much of its validity, unless we were able to show, that any other, at variance with it, could not, upon examination, maintain its ground. The writer, to whom I allude, gives the result of his notions, in nearly the following words*: "The length and shortness of syllables, in the German language, is not determined by the number and quality of the letters, or individual sounds, of which they consist; but by their prosodical value, as parts of speech, of more or less significancy; consequently, the rules of prosody, in that language, can only be drawn from a grammatical knowledge of the parts of speech, and their respective subordinacy, according to the weight, and importance, of their signification."

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* Mr. Moriz. The title of the work, in which it is developed, is Verſuch einer Deutſchen Proſodie, von Karl Moriz, Berlin, 1786; that is, *An Attempt at a German Prosody, by Charles Moriz.*

* P. 246.

The foundation on which that edifice is reared, is a gradation of the parts of speech, according to their sense and meaning, with which their prosodical quantity is said to correspond. This doctrine, if admitted, can only be applicable to monosyllabick words; for in those, which contain more syllables, accent and quantity are established on another basis. So it seems to be understood by our author: and he, therefore, appears to narrow his sphere, by confining the operation of his principle, in the passage adduced, only to one class of words. It is true, that he had previously spoken of words, containing more syllables than one, and assigned the long quantity, or the prosodical accent, to what he styles the significant syllables; but his hypothesis, relative to the parts of speech, can only embrace monosyllables. From being thus contracted, it must, at first view, appear inadequate, and imperfect. But we will enter into a more accurate inquiry, concerning its merits. The parts of speech are thus arranged†: *Substantive, Adjective, Verb, Interjection, Adverb, Auxiliary verb, Conjunction, Pronoun, Preposition, Article.* According to the order, in which they are here drawn up, they are to be considered, in prosody, as of the 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th rank; the following always yielding, in potency, to the preceding. The substantive, therefore, invariably surpasses, in quantity, any other

† Moriz Prosody, p. 185. Read also from p. 185 to 148; and 213, with the following pages.

part of speech: it is long, while the adjective, verb, and the rest, compared to it, are short. The same pre-eminence the adjective maintains over those behind it; the interjection likewise, and so forth, every one rising, in importance, over that which it precedes, and yielding to that which it follows; till, at last, the article concludes the train, and like the 5th class of citizens, or the *capite censi*, at Rome, only exists, to show, by its inferiority, the superior qualification of its neighbours.*

The whole of this system is founded upon an arbitrary assumption, and the imagination of the author; it has otherwise no claim to approbation. The declamatory accent may perhaps be alledged in its support; and it may be argued that, as the prosodick quantity of monosyllables is at the will of the poet, he may be influenced, by the sense and import of the words, in assigning their accent; and thus be induced to determine their length, or brevity. The words themselves, it may be added, will, in some degree, be calculated, according to the idea annexed to them, to attract the oratorial, or declamatory accent, and by its operation, acquire, in a certain order, their respective quantity. But it is to be observed, as has been before intimated, that there is not always a necessity for employing that accent. The verse may proceed, even and unretarded, without such an impulse; and the poet may find it suitable to manage the energies of his strains, without any regard, or even in direct op-

* See Moriz, p. 186, 187.

position, to a similar theory. Indeed, if it be not intended to annihilate the principles, upon which German versification, from its first origin, has been conducted, and to subvert that usage, which has been sanctioned by the consent of anterior times, we must withhold our concurrence from what is proposed. Were we to compare the rules, which are contained in the system alluded to, with the poetry that exists, we should, most frequently, find them inapplicable. It is, without doubt, feasible, in some species of verse, to replace one foot, or one quantity, by another: and to this expedient our author is not rarely compelled to resort, in order to vindicate his opinions. But if it were possible, in every such instance, to consult the poet himself, respecting what he intended, I apprehend, it would appear, that these modifications, and changes were often unjustifiable, and groundless. The most unerring test would be to examine those rules by such metres, as would allow no variation of quantity; for which purpose none seem to be so well qualified as some, used by the ancients, particularly the hexameter, and pentameter. In these, the feet are accurately determined, and the quantity cannot be mistaken.

But I think, it is practicable to derive convincing evidence, against our author, from his own pages. In the 218th, a quotation from Klopstock is introduced, in which the words, hebt ihn, are used as a spondee ¯¯. This is perfectly consistent with the rules of our prosody: but how can it be reconciled to the principles of the other system? Hebt, is a verb; ihn, a pronoun, which is much

inferior, in dignity, to the verb, and when next to it, should be used, according to that theory, as a short syllable, consequently, hebt ihn should make a trochee ¯˘. But the poet knew of no such system, nor felt himself under any restriction.

P. 226. In this line of Ramler,

Liebe, die du Götter oft um Schäfer tauschest,

which is trochaical ¯˘, our author sets down the second foot, die du, for a pyrrich ˘˘, because, says he, the words, of which it consists, are both pronouns, and happen, both to stand in the fall of the verse (of which we shall speak presently); for which reasons, they must both be of the same quantity, and short. This is certainly a summary mode of proceeding; but would the poet agree to it, or has he no right to state, that, on a different principle, he had considered that foot as a trochee?

P. 154. Wenn er einst kommen wird. Great pains are taken to illustrate the respective power of the parts of speech, in this example. But it is contending with a phantom. Supposing that line to be a verse, the three monosyllables might either be employed as a dactyl, Wenn er einst ¯˘˘, kommen wird ¯˘˘; or if the iambick measure were required, they would also conform to this, Wenn er, ˘¯, einst kom˘¯, men wird ˘¯. This is consonant with the existing prosody: for monosyllables are common in quantity, which may be seen in the following instances. P. 183. Du und ich. Reading these three words together, they sound like a dactyl ¯˘˘, the conjunction und, after the

personal pronoun du, being used short. The same conjunction, before another personal pronoun, has the appearance of being long, if we read the following words as trochees, und er ſprach zu mir, ¯˘, ¯˘, ¯. But the words, und er ſprach, might also stand for an anapæst ˘˘¯, and the conjunction be again short. Would any poet be blamed for employing them, in either of these measures? P. 178. Biſt du es nicht. This may be a choriambick ¯˘˘¯, or a double iambick ˘¯˘¯. Will any impartial and competent judge deny it? But if it be admitted, what becomes of the new system? Du biſt, is, by means of the declamatory accent, generally pronounced as an iambick ˘¯. But in the example p. 176: Du biſt meine Zuverſicht und Stärke, that accent being changed, those words are, even by our author's confession, transformed into a trochee ¯˘. The quantity of monosyllables not only accommodates itself to the declamatory accent, but to the will of the poet, in general. P. 191, it is maintained, that, in a passage from Uz, the words Flieg' ich, and Fällt auf, cannot be iambick, because the pronoun ich cannot be long, by the side of flieg', which is a verb, nor the preposition auf, with fällt, which is likewise a verb. But for this assertion we have no ground, excepting the presumed validity of the theory, now under examination.

P. 228. Du deſſen Augen floſſen. Though this verse is iambick ˘¯˘¯˘¯, the first foot is declared to be a spondee, Du des ¯¯: for, one pronoun, it is said, ought not to be short against another pronoun. Thus p. 229, Die welche dich gebahr, in which, Die wel is considered as a spondee, for the same reason. But where do we meet with these

laws? I believe only in the treatise, of which we have been speaking.

I have now to advert to what our author terms the *rise and fall* of syllables. When a syllable is made short, in a verse, by the influence of one longer, which precedes, that syllable is said to fall: when long, in consequence of a shorter one being before it, it is said to rise*. A syllable, which is not of itself long, may be prevented from falling into absolute brevity, by one following, which is shorter: it is, as it were, supported by the latter. In the prosody of all languages, there are different degrees of length and shortness†: so that one syllable, which is short, may appear long, by standing next to another, which is shorter; and that, which is long, may seem to be short, when compared to one, which is still longer. Of this relative quantity of syllables, which are brought into contact, German prosody avails itself for the exigencies of metre, with an extensive latitude: and this is easy to be conceived, when we recollect the nature of quantity, in that language. So far, what is said concerning the rising and falling of the syllables, may be allowed to be right; but when it is connected with the favourite notion, of syllables significant and less signifi-

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* See Moriz, from p. 212 to 215, and p. 219, 220, 226.

† This has been long ago observed by Dionysius Halicarnassesis, who in his treatise περὶ συνθεσέως ὀνομάτων (Vol. V. p. 87, ed. Reiske) says, that one short syllable may exceed another short syllable, in shortness.

cant, and with the peculiar arrangement, which our author makes of the parts of speech, our assent to the truth of his proposition must remain limited.

That, amelioration and a proper degree of refinement may be introduced into versification, as well as into any other species of human art, we do not mean to deny: but a total change of what exists, an overthrow of what has been long and firmly established, in short, an entire innovation of principle, is not to be mistaken for improvement. It is to this that we object: it is on this ground chiefly, that we have opposed Mr. M.'s system. We would willingly agree with him in any suggestion, that, without sapping the foundation, on which German prosody has always stood, would contribute to the beauty, and perfection, of measure and harmony; but we ought to go no farther. For example, his observation, p. 208, that it adds to the sweetness and fluency of verse, when a final syllable, which is used short, and ends in a consonant is followed by one beginning with a vowel, is unexceptionable. Thus, Himmel auf Erden, runs along more smoothly, than Wechſel des Schickſals, though, in both, the syllable el is equally short. This is more strongly perceptible, when a final syllable, with the demi-accent, is to be used short, and is followed by a consonant. The words, Freiheit der Seele; Rettung des Lebens, being read like dactyls and trochees ¯˘˘,˘; ¯˘˘,˘, with the ambiguous syllables, heit and ung, short, and consonants following after them, fall more heavily upon the ear, and disengage themselves with more difficulty, than these: Reichthum und Ehre, Freundſchaft im Tode; in which the syllables,

thum und ſchaft, though of the same nature with heit and ung, pass off easily, and without impediment, because they light upon vowels. Such niceties, and elegancies, may, with great justice, be recommended to the attention of those who write verse, though they are not to be enforced by law and rule.

It remains now, that I should add a specimen of poetry, to which the foregoing remarks may be applied: for which purpose I have chosen an Ode of Klopstock*, in rhymeless metre. It consists of iambicks, alternately of 4 and 3 feet.

⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ –
⏑ – | ⏑ – | ⏑ –.

Heinrich der Vogler.

Der Feind iſt da! Die Schlacht beginnt!
Wohlauf zum Sieg' herbey!
Es führet uns der beſte Mann
Im ganzen Vaterland!

Heut fühlet er die Krankheit nicht,
Dort tragen ſie ihn her!
Heil, Heinrich! heil dir, Held und Mann,
Im eiſernen (1) Gefild!

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* Klopstock's Works, Vol. I. p. 75. Leipzig edition, 1798, 8vo.

(1) *en* is an accentless syllable, one that is naturally

Sein Antlitz glüht vor Ehrbegier,
Und herscht den Sieg herbey!
Schon ist um ihn der Edlen Helm
Mit Feindesblut bespritzt.

Streu (2) furchtbar Strahlen um dich her,
Schwert (3) in des Kaisers Hand,
Daß alles tödtliche (4) Geschoß
Den Weg vorübergeh!

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short; yet it is here used long, by that licence, to which, as has been mentioned, the poets have recourse, without scruple.

(2) *Streu*, a verb, short before *furchtbar*, an adverb; which is a violation of Moriz's theory: for the verb ranks above the adverb, and, therefore, should be long, when standing with the latter. What is to be done? Are we to read the first foot as a spondee ¯¯. instead of an iambick ˘¯? This, I think, would be recommended by Mr. M. But did the poet intend it so?

(3) *Schwert in* ˘¯, a deviation from that system, still more alarming! The substantive, the prince of the parts of speech, short before the preposition, one of the lower plebeians! Impossible! Yet so it seems. Better destroy the metre, and read *Schwert in des* ¯˘˘, as a dactyl, or at least ¯˘, as a trochee. But has the poet acknowledged your laws, and authorized you to do so?

(4) *e*, a most accentless syllable, is employed here with a long quantity.

Willkommen Tod fürs Vaterland!
Wenn unſer ſinkend Haupt
Schön Blut bedeckt, dann ſterben wir
Mit Ruhm fürs Vaterland?

Wenn (5) vor uns wird ein ofnes Feld
Und (6) wir nur Todte ſehn
Weit (7) um uns her, dann ſiegen wir
Mit Ruhm fürs Vaterland!

Dann treten wir mit hohem Schritt
Auf Leichnamen (8) daher!
Dann jauchzen wir im Siegsgeſchrey!
Das geht durch Mark und Bein!

Uns preiſt mit frohem Ungeſtüm
Der Bräutgam und die Braut;
Er ſieht die hohen Fahnen wehn,
Und drückt ihr ſanft die Hand.

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(5) *Wenn vor*, ˘ ˉ, a conjunction short before a preposition, which is against M.'s system. Query, ought it to be read ˉ ˘? Ask the poet.

(6) *Und wir*, ˘ ˉ, a conjunction short before a pronoun, a similar irregularity with the preceding one.

(7) *Weit um* ˘ ˉ, an adverb short before a preposition! A difficulty even greater, than the two former ones.

(8) *en*, an accentless syllable, long: that, which precedes it, *nam*, has the demi-accent, and is here used short.

Und ſpricht zu ihr: Da kommen ſie,
Die Kriegesgötter, her!
Sie ſtritten in der heiſſen Schlacht
Auch für uns beide mit.

Uns preiſt der Freudenthränen voll
Die Mutter, und ihr Kind!
Sie drückt den Knaben an ihr Herz,
Und ſieht dem Kaiſer nach.

Uns folgt ein Ruhm, der ewig bleibt,
Wenn wir geſtorben ſind,
Geſtorben für das Vaterland
Den ehrenvollen Tod!

CHAPTER II.

ON THE NOUN.

Containing:

1. *The Article.*
2. *The Gender.*
3. *The Declension of Substantives.*
4. *The Declension of Adjectives.*
5. *The Comparison of Adjectives.*
6. *The Numerals.*

SECTION I.

THE ARTICLE.

THERE are two articles in the German language, as in the English, the *definite*, which answers to the English *the*, (the man); and the *indefinite*, answering to *a* or *an*, (a house, an oak).

The English articles are not declined; but the German are varied, in their terminations, by four cases, the nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative.

The definite article has two numbers, the singular and the plural. The indefinite can, from its nature, only have the singular number.

In the singular, both the articles have distinct endings, for the three genders of grammar, the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter. In the plural of the definite, one termination serves for all.

DEFINITE ARTICLE.

Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nominative.	Der,	Die,	Das,	the (man).
Genitive.	Des,	Der,	Des,	of the.
Dative.	Dem,	Der,	Dem,	to the.
Accusative.	Den,	Die,	Das,	the.

Plural.

Nom.	Die, the.	for all Genders.
Gen.	Der, of the.	
Dat.	Den, to the.	
Acc.	Die, the.	

INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Ein,	Eine,	Ein,	a (man).
Gen.	Eines,	Einer,	Eines,	of a.
Dat.	Einen,	Einer,	Einem,	to a.
Acc.	Einen,	Eine,	Ein.	a.

No plural.

SECTION II.

THE GENDER.

The Nouns Substantive are distinguished by three genders, the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter: each of which, as has been stated in the foregoing section, has, in the singular number, its appropriate article. We can, therefore, not join a substantive with an article; nor, as afterward will appear, with an adjective, or a pronoun, unless we are certain of its gender. It serves besides, as will be seen, as a criterion for the declension. For these reasons, it seems to be proper, previously to discuss that subject, before we speak of the substantives, the adjectives, and pronouns.

It is an unfortunate circumstance, that this part of Grammar, which is so important and necessary, for correctness of speech, should be so little encompassed by general laws, as it actually is, in the German language. The rules are very few, while the exceptions, and irregularities, are exceedingly numerous. Of most words the gender is only to be acquired by individual experience, and it is, therefore, to be recommended to the foreigner, that, whenever he learns any new substantive, he should be anxious, at the same time, accurately to impress upon his mind the proper article, belonging to it.

A. *Of the Masculine Gender*, are

1. All male names and appellations: as, Der Mann, the man; der Vater, the father; der König, the king, &c. Except diminutives, which are neuters; and some compound words, in which the last component is of a different gender*: as, die Mannsperſon, and das Mannsbild, both denoting *a man;* from die Perſon, the person, feminine, and das Bild, the figure, neuter.

2. The name of God; the names of angels, and demons,—as der Engel, the angel, der Teufel, the devil; of winds,—as der Nordwind, the north wind, der Südwind, the south wind; of seasons,—as der Frühling, the spring, der Sommer, the summer; of months, and days,—as der Januar, January, der Februar, February, der Montag, Monday, der Dienſtag, Tuesday. Das Jahr, the year, is neuter, whence das Frühjahr, a synonomous term for spring, is also neuter; and die Jahrszeit, the season, feminine.

3. The names of stones: as, Der Kies, the flint; der Diamant, or Damant, the diamond: der Smaragd, the emerald: der Onyx, the onyx; der Saphir, the sapphire; der Rubin, the ruby.

4. All words ending in *ing* and *ling:* except das

* See additional remarks on the gender.

Ding, the thing; das Meſſing, brass, (by some, however, called der Meſſing).

5. Most substantives ending in *er*. Except, among others, the following: Das Meſſer, the knife; das Ruder, the oar; die Folter, the rack, an engine of torture; die Halfter, the halter, a cord, or strap, to tie up horses; die Feder, the pen; die Kelter, the wine-press; die Klammer, a hook for holding things together, cramp; die Klapper, the rattle, an instrument; die Leiter, the ladder; die Schleuder, a sling to throw with; die Zither, the guitar.

6. Many words ending in *en*. Exceptions numerous. *a*. The following: Das Almoſen, alms; das Becken, the bason; das Eiſen, the iron; das Kiſſen, the cushion; das Lehen, the fief; das Wapen, or Wappen, the coat of arms; das Zeichen, the sign. *b*. The infinitive moods, when turned into substantives. They are of the neuter gender: as, Das Gehen, the going, or walking; das Reiten, the riding; das Eſſen, the eating, or the meal; das Trinken, the drinking, or drink. To which may be added, das Erdbeben, the earthquake; das Gebrechen, the failing; das Leiden, the suffering; das Vergnügen, the pleasure; das Vermögen, the power of doing a thing, also estate, or fortune. das Verhalten, the demeanour, conduct; das Vorhaben, the purpose, intention; das Weſen, the being. For these are, properly speaking, the infinitives of certain verbs. *c*. The diminutives in *en*, are neuters.

7. Some words beginning with the prefix *ge*, and being derivatives: as, Der Gedanke, der Gefährte, der Gehülfe, der Gebrauch, der Gehalt, der Gehorsam, der Gelaß, der Genosse, der Genuß, der Geruch, der Geschmack, der Gestank, der Geselle, der Gewinn, der Gewinnst, der Gespann, der Gespiele, der Gebrauch, der Gesang, der Gevatter.

B. *Of the Feminine Gender*, are

1. All female names and appellations: as, Die Frau, the woman; die Mutter, the mother; die Fürstinn, the princess. Except *a.* The diminutives, which are neuters. *b.* Das Weib, the woman, or wife; das Mensch, a low, common woman. And these compounds: Das Weibsbild, the female; das Frauenzimmer, a female, a lady; das Weibstück, an expression of contempt, for a woman.

2. The names of trees, fruits, and flowers, when ending in *e*: as, Die Eiche, the oak; die Fichte, the pine; die Buche, the beech; die Tanne, the fir; die Birne, the pear; die Pflaume, the plum; die Rose, the rose; die Nelke, the pink.

3. The names of rivers: as, Die Elbe, the Elbe; die Weser, the Weser; die Donau, the Danube; die Themse, the Thames; die Tiber, the Tiber. Except the following: Der Anio, der Arno, der Dnjeper, der Dnjester, der Don, der Douro, der Ebro, der Euphrat, der Inn, der Lech, der Main, der Minho, der Necker, der Nil, der Po, der Rhein, der Rubico, der Tejo.

4. All words ending in *ey* (or *ei*), *heit*, *keit*, *schaft*, and *ung*: as, Die Raſerey, madness; die Freiheit, freedom, liberty; die Luſtbarkeit, the entertainment, party of pleasure; die Geſellſchaft, company, society; die Zeitung, the tiding. Except: Der Brey, the pap, pulp; das Ey, the egg; das Geſchrey, the clamour; der Schaft, the wooden part of a spear, also the stock of a gun; der Sprung, the leap.

5. All substantives, ending in *e*, which are derived from adjectives: as, Die Länge, the length, from lang, long; die Größe, the magnitude, size, from groß, great; die Güte, the goodness, from gut, good; die Schwere, the weight, heaviness, from ſchwer, heavy.

6. Many other words in *e*: as, Die Scheere, the scissars; die Katze, the cat; die Krähe, the crow; die Mütze, the cap; die Weſte, the waistcoat.

7. Words in *ucht*, and *unft*: as, Die Bucht, the bay; die Flucht, the flight; die Frucht, the fruit; die Sucht, unreasonable zeal, or passion, mania; die Zucht, discipline, also the breeding of cattle; die Zunft, a corporation, guild; die Ankunft, the arrival.

8. Words in *muth*: as, Die Armuth, poverty; die Großmuth, magnanimity—though some express them by different genders: as, das Armuth, der Großmuth. Der Hochmuth, haughtiness, is, I believe, always used as a masculine.

9. Several in *niss*: as, Die Bedrängniß, distress, or embarrassment; die Begegniß, occurrence, fate; die Besorgniß, apprehension; die Betrübniß, sorrow; die Empfängniß, conception, the act of becoming pregnant; die Erkenntniß, the knowledge; die Erlaubniß, the permission; die Ersparniß, savings, (according to some, a neuter); die Fäulniß, putridity; die Kenntniß, knowledge; die Kümmerniß, grief; die Finsterniß, the darkness; die Verdammniß, damnation; die Wildniß, the wilderness. But as many, or more, of this termination, are neuters; and in some the gender is ambiguous.

10. Some words, beginning with *ge*, being for the most part, derivatives: as, Die Gebühr, the due, the fee; die Geburt, the birth; die Geduld, patience; die Gefahr, the danger; die Genüge, the state of being satisfied; die Geschichte, the history; die Geschwulst, the tumour; die Gestalt, the form, or shape; die Gewalt, the force, or power.

C. *Of the Neuter Gender*, are

1. The letters of the alphabet: as, Das A; das B.

2. The names of metals: as, Das Gold, the gold; das Silber, the silver; das Kupfer, the copper. Except: Die Platina, platina; der Stahl, the steel; der Tomback, the pinchbeck; der Zink, zink.

3. The names of countries and places, when the gen-

der is discernible from a word, connected with them, which may be the article, the adjective, or the pronoun*: as, Das aufgeklärte Europa, enlightened Europe; das gesittete Deutschland, refined Germany; das reiche London, the rich town of London. Except: Die Schweiz, Switzerland; die Pfalz, the Palatinate;—and those which end in *ey*: as; die Türkey, Turkey.

4. Words ending in *thum*: as, Das Fürstenthum, the principality; das Christenthum, christianity. Except: Der Irrthum, the errour; der Reichthum, the riches.

5. The infinitive moods, which have acquired the nature of substantives, by the article prefixed: as, Das Gehen, das Reiten, das Essen, the going, the riding, the eating.

6. All parts of speech, not being substantives, when accompanied with the article, to point them out, are assigned to this gender: as, Das Ich, the (word) I; das Und, the (word) and; das Grün, the (colour) green; das Schwarz, the (colour) black; das Rund der Erde, the round (*i. e.* the globe) of the earth; das Lebewohl, the farewell.

7. All diminutives are neuters: to which belongs das

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* The relative pronoun, as well as any other, must correspond with such names, in the neuter gender, for example: Venedig, welches an der See liegt, Venice which is situated on the sea coast; welches, is the neuter of the relative pronoun.

Mädchen, the girl, or maid; being the diminutive of die Magd, the maid.* (How the diminutives are formed, will be shown in the second declension.)

8. Several words beginning with *ge:* as, Das Gebälk, das Gebet, das Gebiet, das Gebot, das Geblüt, das Gebiß, das Gedicht, das Gefäß, das Gefühl, das Geheiß, das Gehör, das Gelübde, das Gemach, das Gemählde, das Gemurmel, das Gemüth, das Geſchöpf, das Geſchoß, das Geſpräch, das Geſuch.

9. Several ending in *niss:* as Das Aergerniß, das Befugniß, das Begräbniß, das Bekenntniß, das Bildniß, das Bündniß, das Einverſtändniß, das Erforderniß, das Geheimniß, das Gedächtniß, das Geſtändniß, das Gleichniß, das Hinderniß, das Mißverſtändniß, das Verhältniß, das Verhängniß, das Verlöbniß, das Vermächtniß, das Verſäumniß, das Vergleichniß, das Verſtändniß, das Zeugniß.

Additional Remarks on the Gender.

1. If we investigate the origin of gender, it will appear, that it is to be looked for in an assimilation of the objects, signified by words, to the animated part of creation. As in this there are two sexes, so the infant mind of man distinguished those objects by two genders. Some, to which might be attributed qualities like those, that are

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* Thus, in Greek, diminutives are often of the neuter gender, τὸ παιδίον, and the name *Glycerium.*

observed in the male sex of living beings, such as greatness, strength, activity, &c. were marked by the male, or masculine gender: others, in which properties, opposite to the former, such as inferior size, comparative weakness, passiveness, &c. were noticed, had the female, or feminine, gender assigned to them. Thus two divisions were made, under which nouns substantive might be classed. Several nations, and the German, among others, added a third, called the neuter gender; comprehending words, that did not exactly coincide with the characteristicks of the two former. It contained, for instance, those with which the comparison of the male and female sex could not well be associated. Of this kind are, in German, the names of some animals, of which the male and female are discriminated, by appropriate denominations. For example, das Pferd, the horse, is of the neuter gender, being the appellative, for the equine species, of which the male is called der Hengſt, the stallion, and the female die Stute, the mare. Thus das Rind, denoting the bovine kind, has the same gender: the male being termed der Stier, (or der Bulle,) the bull, and the female die Kuh, the cow. Likewise das Schwein, the swine —der Eber, (or der Kempe) the boar, die Sau, the sow; das Huhn, the fowl—der Hahn, the cock, die Henne, the hen. There is a similar appellative for the human species, viz. der Menſch, Lat. homo: the subdivions are, der Mann, the man; die Frau, the woman. This, however, as appears from the article, is not of the neuter, but of the masculine gender; which seems to be a pre-eminence, given to it, above the brute creation. We may, upon

this occasion, remark a singularity in the word, das Weib, a woman, which is a neuter. I conjecture, that it was introduced into the language, subsequent to another word of the same signification; and that, for this reason, it was not received in the class of feminines, its place being already occupied: or a particular idea might, originally, be annexed to it, for which it was deemed unworthy of that gender. As those words, of which we have been speaking, were referred to the neuter gender, because a comparison of sex was not combined with them, so the following belong to the same, as general names; the male, and female sex being expressed by subordinate appellations. Das Kind, the child, signifying the offspring of the human species, without implying the sex; das Lamm, the lamb; das Füllen, the foal; das Kalb, the calf; das Ferkel, a young pig: das Küchen, a chicken, or young fowl. In all these words, no regard is had to sex, and, therefore, they are of the neuter gender.

The diminutives are neuters, without any exception. The notion, upon which this circumstance is founded, seems to be, that, as the diminutives are not quite the same as their primitives, whether masculine, or feminine, but differ in their qualities, by being smaller, a different gender is allotted to them.

Abstract terms cannot easily be made to square with the idea of sex. In consequence of this, they are ascribed to the neuter gender: as Das Gehen, the going; das Reiten, the riding.

Those notions were partly modified, and partly set aside, when language became more cultivated, and the

human mind more enlarged. We must, however, have recourse to them, if we wish to unravel, in some degree, the intricacies, with which this subject is accompanied.

II. The gender, we have said, had its source in considering all objects as animate, and in personifying them, according to the sexes, existing in creation. But it does not thence follow, that different individuals, or different nations, should associate the same idea with the same object, or personify it in the same manner. My imagination may represent to me, as most striking, such properties, in the object, as qualify it for one sex; while the perception of my neighbour may be attracted by those characteristicks, which induce him to refer it to the other. The grammatical genders will, consequently, be different. This observation will tend to solve some problems, in the German tongue, which otherwise it would be difficult to explain.

The Sun, for instance, is, in most languages, of the masculine; and *the Moon* of the feminine gender. In the German, it is the reverse: die Sonne, the sun, is feminine; and der Mond, the moon, masculine. How is this to be accounted for? It would be unsatisfactory to say, that it is accidental, and that no reason can be given for so strange an anomaly. The fact seems to be this: most nations personified the Sun as a male, and the Moon as a female being; but the Germans have inverted it, according to the manner in which they, originally, conceived, or imagined, the object. A pecularity of the

same kind appears in the names of rivers. The greatest number of them is, in German, of the feminine gender; and why? because the imagination represented them as female beings. The German language, therefore, would suggest Goddesses of rivers, where the Greek, Roman, and others, exhibited Gods. In these, we may hear of *Father Tiber*, *Father Thames*, while in the former it would be proper to say, *Alma Mater*, *Mother Tiber*, and *Mother Thames*.—This might perhaps be farther illustrated, by an inquiry into the early history of the German nation, and their customs, but it is not here the place for such a digression.

III. It has been stated, concerning the names of animals, that where there is an appellative for the species, besides the sexual denomination of the individuals, that appellative is always of the neuter gender. But, when there is no such appellation, the species takes the name of one of the individual sexes; that is to say, is either of the masculine, or of the feminine gender. This seems to be regulated on the principles alluded to: namely, where the idea of strength, superior size, and the like, may be attached, it is the masculine; and on the other hand, where comparative weakness, smallness, or delicacy of body, is intimated, it is the feminine gender. Thus, when a dog and a cat are compared, the former will deserve the masculine, and the latter the feminine gender; and of a hawk and a pigeon, the first should be the masculine, and the second the feminine. This com-

parison is not to be traced in every instance, but it seems, nevertheless, to be the basis, upon which the gender is founded, in words of a similar nature.

The name of the species thus includes, at the same time, one of the two sexes; the other must then be distinguished by a particular ending, or by the addition of a characterestick term, such as of birds, der Hahn, the cock, die Henne, the hen; or of all animals, birds and quadrupeds, das Männchen, the male; das Weibchen, the female; and the adjectives männlich, weiblich, male, female.

With respect to the endings, which denote the sexes, it is *inn* for the feminine, when the masculine constitutes the name of the species. That termination answers to the English *ess*. Examples: Der Löwe, the lion—die Löwinn, the lionness; der Hund, the dog—die Hündinn, the female dog; der Wolf, the wolf—die Wölfinn, the she-wolf; der Esel, the ass—die Eselinn, the she-ass. In some, however, it is not usual, as in der Fuchs, the fox; der Hase, the hare; der Bär, the bear: in which it is not common to say, die Füchsinn, die Häsinn, die Bärinn. Consequently, the terms, above mentioned, Männchen, Weibchen, männlich, weiblich, or similar words of discrimination, must be called in aid.—If the feminine gender serve for the appellation of the species, the male sex assumes the termination *er*, or *rich*: as, Die Taube, the dove, or pigeon—der Tauber, (or Täuber,) the male; die Gans, the goose—der Gänser, or Gänserich, the gander; die Ente, the duck—der Enter, or Enterich, the drake; die Katze, (old die Kat) the cat—der Kater, the he-cat.

IV. From the above, the termination *inn** has been transferred to certain attributes, and titles, (and occasionally, even to proper names), to denote the feminine gender. Examples: Der Kônig, the king—die Kôniginn, the queen; der Herzog, the duke—die Herzoginn, the duchess; der Fürſt, the prince—die Fürſtinn, the princess; der Prinz, the son of a sovereign, the prince—die Princeſſinn, the daughter of a sovereign, the princess; der Schâfer, the shepherd—die Schâferinn, the shepherdess. As it is the custom, in Germany, for the wife to share the title of her husband, the ending *inn* is adapted to that purpose: for instance, Der Doctor, the doctor—die Doctorinn, the Doctor's wife; der Profeſſor, the professor—die Profeſſorinn, the professor's wife; der Rath, the counsellor—die Râthinn, the counsellor's wife. In addressing the gentlemen, one would say, Herr Doctor, Herr Profeſſor, Herr Rath, Mr. Doctor, Mr. Professor, Mr. Counsellor; and the ladies,

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* I have to remark, that some writers have preferred to express it by *in*, without doubling the letter *n*. Wieland and other respectable names, are among the number. But *inn* has the most ancient usage in its favour, and is likewise supported by recent authorities of distinction. Lessing, Nicolai, Adelung, (see the Orthography of the latter, p. 72.) and others protect it. It may be noticed, that this termination affects the vowel in the masculine, if it be a word of one syllable, by changing it for the feminine, into its corresponding diphthong, as, Wolf, Wölfinn, Hund, Hündinn, Rath, Râthinn.

Frau Doctorinn, Frau Profeſſorinn, Frau Räthinn, Mrs. Doctor, Mrs. Professor, Mrs. Counsellor.

V. It may be observed, that many words have the gender of their common appellatives. For example, the names of flowers are feminine, and the word die Blume, the flower, is likewise of that gender: the names of stones are masculine, and so is der Stein, the stone, their common appellative.

VI. Compound words take the gender of their last component, if it be a substantive: as, Der Kirchenrath, the ecclesiastick council, from die Kirche, the church, and der Rath, the council; das Rathhaus, the council-house, the senate-house, from der Rath, and das Haus, the house; der Maaßſtab, a ruler for measuring, from das Maaß, the measure, and der Stab, the ruler; der Eichbaum, the oak-tree, from die Eiche, the oak, and der Baum, the tree; die Mannsperſon, a man, from der Mann, the man, and die Perſon; das Mannsbild, the man, from der Mann, and das Bild; das Frauenzimmer, the female, the lady, from die Frau, and das Zimmer; das Reitpferd, the saddle-horse, from the verb reiten, to ride, and das Pferd, the horse. There are, however, some exceptions: as, Das Tagelohn wages for a day's labour; das Macherlohn, wages for making any thing, such as clothes; das Druckerlohn, the printer's wages: which words are, generally, used as neuters, although the last component, der Lohn, the wages, is of the masculine gender. Yet in others, composed with the same, its gender is retained. as, Der Arbeitslohn, wages

for work; der Gnadenlohn, the pension for past services; der Hüterlohn, wages of a person who watches, or guards, any thing: der Dienstlohn, wages for service. Likewise some words, compounded with der Muth, the disposition of the mind, deviate in their gender: as, Die Großmuth, magnanimity; die Kleinmuth, pusillanimity; die Sanftmuth, gentleness of disposition; die Schwermuth, the melancholy; die Wehmuth, tenderness of feeling; die Demuth, humility; die Langmuth, forbearance. Others, of the same kind, do not change the gender of their primitives: as, Der Hochmuth, haughtiness; der Edelmuth, nobleness of disposition; der Gleichmuth, equanimity; der Wankelmuth, a wavering disposition; der Heldenmuth, an heroick disposition; der Löwenmuth, a lion-like spirit; der Zweifelmuth, a disposition to despair.

VII. Words, assumed from foreign languages, ought to preserve the gender of their originals: as, Der Canal, the canal, from the Latin *canalis*, masculine; das Sacrament, the sacrament, from the Latin *sacramentum*, neuter; die Periode, the period, from *periodus*, feminine, But this is not always regarded, as is proved by the following: Das Labyrinth, neuter, which comes from *labyrinthus*, masculine;* das Chor, the quire, derived from

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* Wieland assigns to it the masculine gender. See his Agathon, 16 B. 3 Cap. "die—das Gemüth nur in einen Labyrinth von Zweifeln führten." He probably, and I think, unobjectionably, makes Chor also a masculine.

chorus, masculine. Frequently der Zepter (or Scepter,) for das Zepter, though the latter, as it is in use, should decidedly be preferred, because the word is a neuter in the Latin language, from which it is taken. Genie, genius, mental excellence, adopted from the French *le génie*, and deduced from the Latin *ingenium*, is commonly, and very properly, used in the neuter gender. Wieland makes it a masculine, probably under the notion, that it came from the Latin *genius*: but this is evidently a mistake.

VIII. The Gender marks, in several words, a difference of signification. For example:

Der Band, signifies, the binding of a book, and a volume;
Das Band, a ligament; bond, union.

Der Bauer, the peasant;
Das Bauer, the bird-cage.

Der Buckel, (or Puckel) the back, also the hump;
Die Buckel, the stud, or knob,

Der Bulle, the male of a cow;
Die Bulle, a letter published by the Pope.

Der Bund, a covenant, league, confederacy;
Das Bund, things tied together, a sheaf, bundle.

Der Erbe, the heir;
Das Erbe, the inheritance.

Der Geiſſel, a hostage;
Die Geiſſel, a scourge.

Der Geſchoß, the tax, impost;
Das Geſchoß, a missile weapon.

Die Gift, the gift;
Das Gift, the poison.

Der Harz, the Hercynian forest ;

Das Harz, rosin.

Der Heide, the pagan ;

Die Heide, the heath.

Der Kaper, a privateer ;

Die Kaper, the caper, a vegetable, *Caparis Spinosa.* Linn.

Der Kiefer, the jaw ;

Die Kiefer, a sort of fir.

Der Leiter, the guide, conductor ;

Die Leiter, the ladder.

Die Mandel, the almond ;

Das Mandel, a number of fifteen*.

Der Mangel, the want, deficiency ;

Die Mangel, a machine for pressing linen†.

Die Mark, the mark, boundary ;

Das Mark, the marrow.

Der Marsch, the march ;

Die Marsch, the marsh, fen.

Der Mast, the mast of a vessel ;

Die Mast, the fruit of the oak and beech, and the feeding of the swine thereon.

Der Mensch, one of the human species ;

Das Mensch, an opprobrious term for a female.

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* Adelung makes this word a feminine, which I think wrong. See his dictionaries, and the Vocabulary added to the Orthography.

† In some parts they call it Mandel, which mode of writing, and speaking is injudiciously preferred by Adelung.

Der Meſſer, he that measures;

Das Meſſer, the knife.

Der Mohr, a moor, a black man—also a sort of silk;

Das Mohr, the fen, bog.

Der Ort, the place;

Das Ort, a certain coin—also a certain measure.

Der Ohm, (for Oheim,) the uncle;

Das Ohm, a certain measure for wine.

Der Reis, the rice;

Das Reis, a twig, sprig, small branch.

Der Schild, the shield;

Das Schild, the sign of a house.

Der See, the lake;

Die See, the sea.

Der Sproſſe, the shoot, sprout;

Die Sproſſe, the step, or round, of a ladder.

Der Stift, a piece of wire, a thin peg, or bolt;

Das Stift, an ecclesiastical establishment, ecclesiastical territory.

Der Thor, a fool, silly person;

Das Thor, the gate.

Der Zoll, the toll;

Das Zoll, an inch.

IX. There remains an uncertainty, in the gender, with regard to some words: as, Der Mittwochen, (or Mittwoch,) Wednesday, and die Mittwoche; der Altar, the altar, and das Altar; der Gyps, plaster made of lime-chalk, and das Gyps.—It would not be worth our while to enumerate all the deviations, which may be found in the different provinces of Germany.

SECTION III.

THE DECLENSION OF SUBSTANTIVES.

The nouns substantive are most conveniently arranged under FOUR DECLENSIONS. By this division, the great advantage is obtained, of enabling the student, at the first view of any word, accompanied by its article, to refer it, immediately, to its proper mode of inflection. This is of the utmost importance, and not to be accomplished by any other method. It removes the labour of learning the declension of every substantive individually, by subjecting the whole body of them to a few plain rules.*

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* This system of the declensions is entirely my own, and I will not hesitate to say, that I regard it as one of the most important, and valuable parts of the Grammar. I succeeded in establishing it, after much reflection, having strongly felt the defectiveness of other grammars, in this particular. They furnish a certain number of declensions, more or less, from two to ten; but none of them enables you to determine, how any substantive you may meet with, is to be declined. None has arrived at fixing this criterion, which is of so much consequence, that, without it, any scheme of declension can but be of little use. By the method laid down, in the subsequent pages, all uncertainty, as to this matter, is removed: and long observation and experience have proved, how fully it answers its purpose. Some of the Criticks, by

The First Declension

contains *all the nouns substantive of the Feminine gender ;* and is thus formed :

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whom the former editions of this work have been reviewed, have not been aware of the nature of the subject, on which they were passing their judgment, and have seen nothing in it but an arbitrary innovation, or the substitution of one number of declensions for another. They did not perceive, that, far from caprice, or fancy, having suggested the alteration, it was necessity, that prompted it. And if that necessity has been successfully relieved, the merit of the contrivance, by which this was effected, is not to be denied. If those persons failed to appreciate it, it must be ascribed to their ignorance, or their inattention. I have, in the second edition, mentioned a German Reviewer, who has thus exposed his failings. I do not know, whether I should advert to an objection, which has been made, that our system of declensions renders a multiplicity of exceptions necessary. These exceptions, it will be found, are not more numerous, than might be expected in the framing of any rules, in a language like the German: and though they should add to the difficulties of the learner, yet they do not diminish the great and paramount utility of the system. If, before, there were no exceptions, this is easily explained: for neither were there any rules. In a language that is

In the *Singular number*, the terminations remain unaltered.

In the *Plural*, the following additions are made to the termination of the singular, viz. of

n, throughout all the cases, if the singular end in *e*, *el*, *er*.

en, if it end in any vowel but *e*, or in any consonant, with the exception of monosyllabick words, and the terminations *el* and *er*.

e, in monosyllables, ending with a consonant, for all cases, excepting the dative, which has the termination *en*.

Note. The plurals of die Mutter, the mother, and die Tochter, the daughter, are irregular, viz. *nom. gen. acc.* die Mütter, die Töchter; *dat.* den Müttern, den Töchtern.

The Second Declension

contains *all the Masculines* and *Neuters*, ending in *el*, *em*, *er*, (not those in *eer*, or *err*,) and the *Neuters* in *e*.

Its inflection consists in an addition of *s* to the *Genitive Singular*, and of *n* to the *Dative Plural*.—Words ending in *n*, do not require the superaddition of this letter, in the dative plural.

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much cultivated, and used, exceptions always abound. This is judiciously observed by Mr. Adelung, in his Orthography, p. 16. It is in its infancy, that a language is most regular, and most swayed by analogy.

The Third Declension

contains all those words, which end in *e*, and *st*, which are *of the Masculine gender*, and *of more than one syllable*. But besides these, some others, which are to be enumerated on a subsequent page, of different terminations, though all of the masculine gender, belong to this declension. One neuter only has found a place among them, namely, das Herz, the heart.

All the cases, both of the *Singular* and the *Plural*, with the exception of the nominative singular, are made by adding to the latter, when ending in *e*, the letter *n*; and *en*, when ending in *st*, or in some other consonant. Words ending in *ar*, and *err*, are commonly declined with the termination *n* (instead of *en*), though not necessarily so. There may be occasions, when *en* may appear preferable.—Sometimes the genitive singular receives the accession of *s*, so as to terminate in *ens*.

The Fourth Declension

contains all those *Masculines* and *Neuters*, which are not comprehended in the second, and third declensions.

In *the Singular*, the *Genitive* is made, by adding *es* to the nominative: the *Dative*, by adding *e*; and the *Accusative* is like the *Nominative*.

In *the Plural*, most words form their cases by an addition of *e* for the *Nominative*, *Genitive*, and *Accusative*, of *en* for the *Dative*, to the nominative singular.

Several neuters, especially those of one syllable, and a few masculines, instead of *e*, and *en*, assume the syllables *er*, and *ern*, in the cases alluded to.

Note. In the genitive singular, *s* simple is occasionally substituted for *es;* and *e*, in the dative, omitted.

General Rules.

I. The dative plural, in all declensions, terminates with the letter *n*.

II. The vowels a, o, u, and the diphthong au, of the singular number, are, in the plural of many words, changed into the diphthongs, ä, ö, ü, and äu. This applies

a. To the monosyllables of the first declension, which form the plural in *e*: as, Die Hand, pl. die Hände; die Noth, pl. die Nöthe; die Frucht, pl. die Früchte; die Faust, die Fäuste.

b. To several words of the second declension. See the examples, and observations, hereafter.

c. To all those nouns of the fourth, which make their plural in *er*, and to many of the same declension, which have *e* in that number. See the observations, afterwards.

III. The vocative case, in either number, is always

understood to be like the nominative. It will, therefore, not be mentioned in the following examples.

We now proceed to give specimens of the several declensions, and to enter into a detail, concerning each.

First Declension,

Comprising *all the nouns substantive of the Feminine gender.*

EXAMPLES.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. Die Schale, the saucer	N. Die Schalen, the saucers
Gen. Der Schale, of the	G. Der Schalen, of
Dat. Der Schale, to	D. Den Schalen, to
Acc. Die Schale, the saucer.	A. Die Schalen, the saucers.
Nom. Die Feder, the pen	N. Die Federn, the pens
Gen. Der Feder, of	G. Der Federn, of
Dat. Der Feder, to	D. Den Federn, to
Acc. Die Feder, the pen.	A. Die Federn, the pens.
Nom. Die Frau, the woman	N. Die Frauen, the women
Gen. Der Frau, of	G. Der Frauen, of
Dat. Der Frau, to	D. Den Frauen, to
Acc. Die Frau, the woman.	A. Die Frauen, the women.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. Die Hoffnung, the hope	N. Die Hoffnungen, the hopes
Gen. Der Hoffnung, of	G. Der Hoffnungen, of
Dat. Der Hoffnung, to	D. Den Hoffnungen, to
Acc. Die Hoffnung, the hope.	A. Die Hoffnungen, the hopes.

Nom. Die Hand, the hand	N. Die Hände, the hands
Gen. Der Hand, of	G. Der Hände, of
Dat. Der Hand, to	D. Den Händen, to
Acc. Die Hand, the hand.	A. Die Hände, the hands.

Nom. Die Mutter, the mother	N. Die Mütter, the mothers
Gen. Der Mutter, of	G. Der Mütter, of
Dat. Der Mutter, to	D. Den Müttern, to
Acc. Die Mutter, the mother.	A. Die Mütter, the mothers.

Observations.

1. Monosyllables ending in a consonant, should, according to rule, form the plural in *e*; but the following are excepted: Die Art, the kind; die Bahn, the career, course: die Bay, a bay; die Birn, the pear; die Brut, the brood; die Bucht, an opening in the land, a bay; die Chur, the election; die Cur, the cure; die Dirn, the damsel; die Fahrt, the conveyance; die Flur, a field, a

plain; die Fluth, the flood; die Form, the form; die Fracht, the freight; die Gluth, a vehement fire; die Jagd, the chace; die Last, the burden; die List, the cunning, deceit; die Mark, the boundary, and a species of coin; die Pflicht, the duty; die Pracht,* the pomp; die Post, the post, post-office; die Quaal, the torment; die Schaar, the crowd, troop; die Schlacht, the battle; die Schrift, the writing; die Schuld, the debt; die Spur, the trace, track; die Stirn, the forehead; die That, the deed; die Thür, the door; die Tracht, the mode of dress; die Trift, the pasture; die Uhr, the clock, the watch; die Wahl, the choice; die Welt, the world; die Zahl, the number; die Zeit, the time; die Zier, the ornament.—All these make the plural in *en*, as: Die Arten, die Birnen, die Thüren, die Uhren, &c. Several of them are, sometimes, (but improperly), written, and spoken, with an additional *e* for the termination of the singular; then they do not come under this exception: for example, Birne, Dirne, Stirne, Thüre; also Uhre, and Spure.

2. The monosyllables, in the foregoing exception, as they do not assume the termination *e*, in their plural, so they neitheir admit a change of the vowels a, o, u, and the diphthong au, which, according to the general rule, should be transformed, in the plural of monosyllables, whose singular ends in a consonant, into the diphthongs ä, ö, ü, and äu.

* *Jerusalem* makes this word a masculine; on what ground, I know not. See Betrachtungen über die vornehmsten Wahrheiten der Religion (Braunschw. 1785) Vol. I, 271. 256, 291, 292.

3. The word, die Sau, a female pig, a sow, makes the plural die Säue; but when the female of a *wild* boar is understood, it is by sportsmen expressed, in the plural, die Sauen. Die Bank, signifying a bench, has *e* in the plural, die Bänke; but when it means a bank, where pecuniary concerns are transacted, it takes *en*, die Banken.

4. Some compound words, of two syllables, form the plural in *e*, with a change of vowels: as, Die Armbruſt, the cross-bow; die Abkunft, descent, origin; die Auskunft, information, intelligence—plur. Armbrüſte, Abkünfte, Auskünfte. The reason is, that they are composed of monosyllables.

5. It seems, that formerly the termination *en* was given to the singular number, in the declension of feminines. For we still find vestiges of it, in common discourse, and even in some phrases, adopted by the best authorities. Under this description come the following: Auf Erden, on earth, for auf der Erde; zu Ehren, in honour of; von Seiten, on the part of; vor Freuden, for joy; zu Schanden werden, to fall into dishonour, or disgrace, to be disgracefully disappointed. That termination may be said to supply the place of the article; which power it has in proper names, as will afterwards be shown. It may be discerned in some compound words, where the article is suppressed on account of the composition, but would be used, if the composition were dissolved, and the components reduced to their simple state: for example, Der Ehrenſchänder, the destroyer of honour: das Freudenfeſt, the

jubilee; die Höllenfahrt, the descent into hell—instead of der Schänder *der* Ehre, das Fest *der* Freude, die Fahrt, (zu) *der* Hölle. Thus, Frauenbild, Frauenzimmer, Blumenstaub, ehrenrührig.

6. Some words, of the first declension, are not used in the plural number. They are, for the most part, abstract terms, and words of general import, or such, for which, from the nature of their signification, no plural is required. This subject will be more amply discussed, in the additional remarks.

7. In some compounds, the substantives belonging to the first declension, admit the general characteristick of the genitive case, which is the letter *s:* for example, Arbeitshaus, from die Arbeit; Achtserklärung, from die Acht; Geburtstag, from die Geburt; Hülfsmittel, hülfsbedürftig, from die Hülfe; Auslegungskunst, from die Auslegung.

Second Declension,

Comprehending all those nouns *of the Masculine and Neuter genders,* which end in *el, em, en, er;* and those *of the Neuter gender,* which end in *e.*

EXAMPLES.

Nom. Der Himmel, the heaven	N. Die Himmel, the heavens
Gen. Des Himmels, of	G. Der Himmel, of
Dat. Dem Himmel, to	D. Den Himmeln, to
Acc. Den Himmel, the heaven.	A. Die Himmel, the heavens.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. Der Buſen, the bosom	N. Die Buſen, the bosoms
Gen. Des Buſens, of	G. Der Buſen, of
Dat. Dem Buſen, to	D. Den Buſen, to
Acc. Den Buſen, the bosom.	A. Die Buſen, the bosoms.
Nom. Der Vater, the father	N. Die Väter, the fathers
Gen. Des Vaters, of	G. Der Väter, of
Dat. Dem Vater, to	D. Den Vätern, to
Acc. Den Vater, the father.	A. Die Väter, th fathers.
Nom. Das Gebirge, the mountain	N. Die Gebirge, the mountains
Gen. Des Gebirges, of	G. Der Gebirge, of
Dat. Dem Gebirge, to	D. Den Gebirgen, to
Acc. Das Gebirge, the mountain.	A. Die Gebirge, the mountains

Observations.

1. Very few words remain with the ending *em:* for instance, Der Athem, the breath; der Beſem, the broom—and in these, *n*, is now frequently substituted for *m*. Though *em* should be retained, the dative plur. would be *en:* for instance, dat. plur. Den Beſen.*

* *Musäus*, (Volksmärchen, 5ter. Th. S. 256, Wieland's edition), makes this dative plural Beſemen—"mit Beſemen gekehrt"—; which is quite ungrammatical.

2. To this declension may be added, nouns compounded with the verb ſeyn: as, Das Bewußtſeyn, consciousness; das Wohlſeyn, the state of good health. These words have no plural number. Also neuters in *a*: as, Das Klima, the climate; das Sopha, the sopha—gen. des Klimas, des Sophas. If the plural of these last words be required, as they are not of German origin, nor sufficiently germanized, it is made in a peculiar manner, namely, by the letter *s*, Klimas, Sophas. The same remark may be made relative to words, ending in *ier*, and *eur*, when they are used in German composition.

3. Der Kerl, a familiar, or rather low, appellation for a man, answering in a certain sense, to the English *fellow*, is referred to this declension: viz. singular nom. Der Kerl, gen. des Kerls, dat. dem Kerl, acc. den Kerl; plur. nom. Die Kerl, gen. der Kerl, dat. den Kerln, acc. die Kerl. It has been contracted from Kerel; for so it is, to this day, spoken in Low German: and this accounts for its belonging to the second declension.

4. The following, in the plural number, change the vowels a, o, u, into the diphthongs ä, ö, ü. *(a)* Some which end in *el*: Der Apfel, the apple; der Hammel, a castrated sheep; der Handel, an affair, a concern; der Mangel, the deficiency; der Mantel, the mantle; der Nabel, the navel; der Sattel, the saddle; der Schnabel, the beak; der Vogel, the bird. *(b)* Some which end in *en*: Der Faden, the thread; der Graben, the ditch; der Garten, the garden; der Hafen, the haven, harbour; der Laden, the shop, (but when it means the shutter of a window,

the vowel is not altered). *(c)* Some which end in *er*: Der Acker, a field, or an acre; der Hammer, the hammer; der Pachter, the farmer, (though this word is also written, in the singular, Pächter); der Schwager, the sister's husband, the brother-in-law; der Vater, the father; der Bruder, the brother. These have in the plural, Sättel, Vögel, Gärten, Brüder, &c.

5. All diminutives belong to this declension.—Any substantive may be formed into a diminutive, by the termination *chen* being added: for instance, Das Väterchen, das Brüderchen, from Vater, Bruder. The vowels a, o, u, and the diphthong au, are, generally, converted into ä, ö, ü, äu, as appears from the examples just mentioned. Thus das Söhnchen, from Sohn, the son; das Bäumchen, from der Baum, the tree. In the Upper German idiom, the syllable *lein* serves for the purpose of making diminutives: as, Das Männlein, from der Mann, the man; das Fräulein, from die Frau, the woman; das Büchlein, from das Buch, the book. In the High German, *chen* predominates: yet *lein* is adopted, when the other appears too colloquial; for example, in poetry. It also remains in particular words: as, Das Fräulein, which is the title of a young lady of noble extraction; das Müthlein, denoting a revengeful disposition; das Büchlein, a book of small compass.—When a word, ending in *e*, *el*, *en*, is to receive the diminutive termination of *lein*, the letters *e*, *en*, and *l*, are commonly left out: as, Das Knäblein, from der Knabe, the boy; das Küchlein, from der Kuchen, the cake; das Engelein, from der Engel, the angel. If it be required

to transform a word, ending in *ch*, or *g*, into a diminutive with *chen*, the syllable *el* must be inserted: as, Das Büchelchen, das Ringelchen, from das Buch, the book; der Ring, the ring. This is done to prevent the concurrence of the same, or similar, letters. On that account, it is better to say Seelelein, than Seellein, from die Seele, the soul; Schnällelein, than Schnällein, from die Schnalle, the buckle; though, in these instances, *chen* should be preferred, Seelchen, Schnällchen.—All diminutives are of the neuter gender, as has been stated before. Their original signification is that of littleness, which is differently modified, assuming, in the object, sometimes the idea of prettiness, sometimes that of smallness only, and also, occasionally, that of ridicule and contempt; and in the person speaking, or writing, frequently that of fondness, or flattery.

6. Some words of the second declension, take their plural number from the third so as to end in *en*: as, Der Baier, the Bavarian; der Bauer, the peasant; der Pantoffel, the slipper; der Stachel, the sting; der Vetter, a male relation, a cousin; das Auge, the eye; das Ende, the end: pl. Baiern, Bauern, Pantoffeln, Stacheln, Vettern, Augen, Enden. It would be no great offence against the language, if they were altogether, both in the singular and plural, consigned to the third declension.

Third Declension,

Containing *all the Masculines,* ending in *e* and *st* (*of more than one syllable*); *some other words of the same*

gender, but different terminations; and *one neuter,* das Herz.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. Der Knabe, the boy	N. Die Knaben, the boys
Gen. Des Knaben, of	G. Der Knaben, of
Dat. Dem Knaben, to	D. Den Knaben, to
Acc. Den Knaben, the boy.	A. Die Knaben, the boys.
Nom. Der Herr, the lord, or master	N. Die Herrn, or Herren,* the masters
Gen. Des Herrn, of	G. Der Herrn, of
Dat. Dem Herrn, to	D. Den Herrn, to
Acc. Den Herrn, the master.	A. Die Herrn, the masters.
Nom. Der Infantrist, the foot soldier	N. Die Infantristen, the foot soldiers
Gen. Des Infantristen, of	G. Der Infantristen, of
Dat. Dem Infantristen, to	D. Den Infantristen, to
Acc. Den Infantristen, the foot soldier.	A. Die Infantristen, the foot soldiers.

* The plural of words in *ar*, and *err*, seems often to be expressed with more effect by the termination *en*, than by *n*: as, Die Barbaren, die Herren.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. Das Herz, the heart	N. Die Herzen, the hearts
Gen. Des Herzen, of	G. Der Herzen, of
Dat. Dem Herzen, to	D. Den Herzen, to
Acc. Das Herz,* the heart.	A. Die Herzen, the hearts.

Observations.

1. The genitive case singular is sometimes formed in *ens*. This may be done, when it is placed before the word, by which it is governed: as, Des Knabens Vater, the boy's father, instead of der Vater des Knaben, the father of the boy; des Knabens halben, on account of the boy, where the preposition halben stands after its case: and it should always be done, when the genitive is not indicated by the article: as, Herzens Güte, goodness of heart. But to admit that additional *s*, without a peculiar motive, is inaccurate. In the following words, however, it is authorized by the best grammarians†: Der Friede, peace;

* It is remarkable, that in all languages, which vary the terminations, in declension, the accusative case of the neuters is like the nominative.—Das Herz is sometimes expressed by Herze, not only in provincial idiom, but also in writing, for instance, in poetry. The prevailing usage, however, rejects the final *e*.

† Adelung is one of them.

der Funke, the spark; der Fußſtapfe, the footstep; der Gedanke, the thought; der Glaube, the faith, the belief; der Haufe, the crowd; der Karpfe, the carp; der Name, the name; der Same, the seed; der Schade, the hurt, injury, damage; der Wille, the will: of which the reason seems to be, that these words may likewise, in the nominative case singular, be expressed by Frieden, Funken, Fußſtapfen, Gedanken, Glauben, Haufen, Karpfen, Namen, Samen, Schaden, Willen; and referred to the second declension, in which *s* is the necessary characteristick of the genitive.* But notwithstanding this circumstance, the *s* is, in those words, frequently omitted.

2. It has been stated, that the masculines, ending in *e* and *st*, fall under this declension, if they be of more than one syllable. Therefore, monosyllables, as der Thee, the tea; der Zwiſt, discord, do not belong to it. Yet, der Chriſt, the christian, and der Fürſt, the prince, are included: but these may, originally, have been Chriſte, Fürſte; and thus have lain within the rule. Der See, the lake, is in the singular of the fourth, and in the plural of the third declension.

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* One of these words, der Schaden, sometimes bears another mark of the second declension, namely, that it is, in the plural, expressed by Schäden. Thus it is used by Wieland, Agathon, Vol. II, p. 259, (Leipzig, 1794. 8vo). That change, of a into ä, appertains decidedly to the second declension, and not the third.

3. To the third declension belong the following words: Der Advocat, the advocate; der Architect, the architect; der Barbar, the barbarian; der Baſiliſt, the basilisk: der Bär, the bear; der Bey, a Turkish governour: der Brunn, the well, (also Brunnen, after the second); der Buchſtab, the letter, or character, of the alphabet; der Cadett, a cadet, young soldier; der Camerad, the comrade; der Candidat, the candidate; der Catholik, the Roman catholick; der Chriſt, the christian; der Client, the client; der Correspondent, the correspondent; der Daum, the thumb, (Daumen, after the second); der Docent, the teacher: der Ducat, a species of coin; der Elephant, the elephant; der Fels, the rock, (also der Felſen, second declension); der Fürſt, the prince; der Geck, a ridiculous man; der Genoß, the associate partner; der Geſell, the associate, journeyman; der Graf, the count; der Hageſtolz, a bachelor, an unmarried man; der Halunk, the scoundrel; der Heiduck, a sort of footman; der Held, the hero; der Herr, the lord, or master; der Hirt, the herdsman; der Huſar, the hussar; der Janitſchar, the Janisary; der Inſaß, the inmate; der Menſch, man, a human being, (das Menſch, an abject female, is of the fourth); der Mohr, the moor, or negro; der Monarch, the monarch; der Narr, the fool; der Ochs, the ox; der Paragraph, the paragraph; der Patriarch, the patriarch; der Pfriem, the awl, (also der Pfriemen, second); der Philoſoph, the philosopher; der Poet, the poet; der Potentat, the potentate; der Präſident, the president; der Prälat, the prelate; der Prinz, the prince; der Pſalm, the psalm; der Schenk, the cup-bearer, butler, publican, (also after the fourth); der Schmerz, the pain, (more commonly after the fourth); der Schöps, the

sheep, the dunce, (also after the fourth); der Soldat, the soldier; der Student, the student; der Superintendent, a superintendent, or superior clergyman; der Theolog, the theologian, the divine; der Thor, a silly person (to be distinguished from das Thor, the gate, after the fourth declension); der Tropf, a simpleton (to be distinguished from der Tropf, after the fourth, which signifies a drop); der Tyrann, the tyrant: der Vorfahr, the ancestor; der Zack, any thing pointed, and projecting. Add some derivatives, ending in *it*: as, Der Adamit, a descendant of Adam; der Jesuit, a Jesuite; der Hussit, &c. Also the appellatives of some nations: such as, Der Kalmuck, der Kosack, der Kroat, der Malabar, der Uhlan, &c.*

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* Many of the words, above enumerated, would bear an *e*, at the end, without shocking the ear, and are even heard so, in provincial dialects: such as, Bäre, Brunne, Buchstabe, Camerade, Candidate, Catholike, Ducate, Elephante, Genosse, Geselle, Halunke, Heiducke, Hirte, Insasse, Monarche, Narre, Ochse, Potentate, Präsidente, Schenke, Soldate, Studente, Zacke; thus Adamite, Jesuite; and farther Kalmucke, Kosacke, Kroate, Uhlane. With the *e*, at the end, they would, at once, fall under the law of this declension: and it is scarcely to be doubted that such, at first, was their caracteristick. But the rougher idiom of the Upper German, as it prevailed, took away this softening vowel. Had that been left, the rule of this declension would have been so absolutely established, that there almost would not have been an exception. It simply would have been

4. Of some words the nominative singular is not sufficiently fixed, to determine the declension, to which they should belong: for, according to the ending of that case, the declension must vary. If, for example, you say, der Brunnen, the well, this word comes under the second declension; if der Brunn, it is to be referred to the third. Thus der Daumen, the thumb, second decl. der Daum, third; der Felſen, the rock, second, der Fels, third.

5. The third declension lends the plural number to some nouns of the second, which have been before mentioned; and likewise to some of the fourth, which will be spoken of below.

6. One masculine in *e* does not follow this, but the second declension, namely, Der Käſe, the cheese, gen. des Käſes, &c. Plur. die Käſe, dat. den Käſen, &c. But it may be observed, that the word is also written Käs, in which shape it would belong to the fourth declension, without, any where, occasioning an exception. There is likewise a word in *st*, which deserts this declension, and follows the fourth, viz. der Pallaſt, the palace; gen. des Pallaſtes, pl. die Palläſte, &c.

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this: To the third declension belong all the masculines ending in *e*, of two, or more, syllables. For even the words now ending in *st*, would have had the *e*: and das Herz would have been das Herze. From this it will appear, how truly the principle of this declension has been ascertained, in our system.

7. The final *e* of the nom. case sing. is now and then omitted, in words of this declension, where it ought to be put; and poets sometimes use the liberty of cutting off the termination *en*, in other cases: as, Dem Held, dem Fels, dem Fürſt, for dem Helden, Felſen, Fürſten.—But this is rather to be pardoned, than to be imitated.

Fourth Declension,

Comprehending *all those Masculines, and Neuters,* which are not included in the two foregoing declensions.

EXAMPLES.

Singular.	*Plural,* in *e.*
Nom. Der Tiſch, the table	N. Die Tiſche, the tables
Gen. Des Tiſches, of	G. Der Tiſche, of
Dat. Dem Tiſche, to	D. Den Tiſchen, to
Acc. Den Tiſch, the table.	A. Die Tiſche, the tables.

Singular.	*Plural,* in *er.*
Nom. Das Buch, the book	N. Die Bücher, the books
Gen. Des Buches, of	G. Der Bücher, of
Dat. Dem Buche, to	D. Den Büchern, to
Acc. Das Buch, the book.	A. Die Bücher, the books.

Observations.

1. The genitive case singular is sometimes made, by adding merely *s*, instead of *es*, to the nominative; and in the dative, the termination *e* is omitted: as, Des Buchs,

dem Buch. These abridgments, however, are not to be approved, unless when founded upon some reason. The metre of a verse, or the rhythm of an oratorical sentence, may, for example, justify them. In some instances, the application of this licence would be intolerable, as in Geſetzs, for Geſetzes; Platzs, for Platzes; Tiſchs, for Tiſches.— Of Gott, God, denoting the Supreme Being, the genitive is hardly ever found otherwise, than Gottes, and the dative Gott; but when the word signifies a heathen deity, or an idol, it may be Gotts, in the genitive, and Gotte, in the dative. Words ending in *ar* and *or*, and some in *am*, are generally used without the *e*: as, Der Nachbar, the neighbour, gen. des Nachbars, dat. dem Nachbar; der Paſtor the priest, gen. des Paſtors, dat. dem Paſtor; der Bräutigam the bridegroom, gen. des Bräutigams, dat. dem Bräutigam; der Gehorſam, obedience, gen. des Gehorſams, dat. dem Gehorſam.

2. The following is a list of those nouns, which form their plural in *er*. *(a)* Of the masculine gender: Der Gott, (plur. Götter,) a god, a heathen idol; Geiſt, Hundsfott, Irrthum, Leib, Mann, Rand, Reichthum, Vormund, Wald. *(b)* Of the neuter gender: Das Aas, (plur. Aeſer), Alterthum, Amt, Augenlied, Bad, Bild, Bisthum, Blatt, Bret, Buch, Dach, Dorf, Erzbisthum, Ey, Fach, Faß, Feld, Fürſtenthum, Geld, Gemach, Gemüth, Geſpenſt, Geſchlecht, Glas, Glied, Grab, Gras, Gut, Haupt, Haus, Herzogthum, Holz, Hoſpital, Huhn, Kalb, Kind, Kleid, Kraut, Lamm, Licht, Lied, Loch, Maul, das Menſch (a bad woman), Neſt, Pfand, Rad, Regiment, das Schild (the sign of an inn), Schloß, Schwert

Spital, Thal, Volk, Wamms, Weib. Das Mahl, the act of taking food, the meal, and its compound, das Gastmahl, the banquet; likewise das Mahl, the mark, sign, with the compounds Denkmahl, Grabmahl, Merkmahl, have the plural commonly in *er*, but also in *e*. Der Strauch, and das Gebet, are sometimes used in the plur. in *er*, as Sträucher, Gebeter; but this is improper.

3. All those, which have *er* in the plural, change the vowels a, o, u, and the diphthong au, in the same number, into ä, ö, ü, äu: as, Mann, pl. Männer; Loch, pl. Löcher; Buch, pl. Bücher; Haus, pl. Häuser. And of those in *e*, the following transform them: *(a)* Masculines; Der Aal, pl. Aele; der Abt, pl. die Aebte; der Abdruck, pl. die Abdrücke; der Altar, pl. die Altäre; moreover Anfang, Antrag, Arzt, Ast, Auftrag, Ausdruck, Ausgang, Bach, Balg, Ball, Band (the volume of a book), Bart, Baß, Bauch, Baum, Bischof, Block, Bock, Brand, Brauch, Bruch, Busch, Canal, pl. Canäle; Capellan, pl. Capellane; Cardinal, pl. Cardinäle; Castellan, pl. Castellane, Choral, Damm, Dampf, Darm, Diebstahl, Dunst, Eindruck, Einfluß, Eingang, Einwurf, Fall, Fiscal, Floh, Fluch, Flug, Fluß, Frosch, Fuchs, Fund, Fuß, Gang, Gast, Gaul, Gebrauch, Geruch, Gesang, Grund, Guß, Hahn, Hals, Hof, Hut, Kahn (a boat), Kampf, Karst, Kauf, Kautz, Klang, Kloß, Klotz, Knopf, Koch, Kopf, Korb, Krampf, Kranz, Kropf, Krug, Kuß, Latz, Lauf, Markt, Marsch, Marschall, pl. Marschälle; Morast, pl. Moräste; Nachschuß, Napf, Pallast, pl. Palläste; Papst, Pastor, pl. Pastöre; Paß, Pflock, Pflug, Platz, Pocal, pl. Pocäle; Propst, Puff, Ranft, Rank, Rath, Raum, Rausch, Rock, Rumpf, Saal, pl. Säle; Sack, Saft,

Sarg, Satz, Saum, Schacht, Schaft, Schalk, Schall, Schatz, Schaum, Schlaf (the temple of the head), Schlag, Schlauch, Schlund, Schluß, Schmaus, Schooß, pl. Schöße; Schopf, Schrank, Schurz, Schuß, Schwamm, Schwan, Schwank, Schwanz, Schwarm, Schwung, Schwur, Selbstschuß, Sohn, Spaß, Spruch, Sprung, Spund, Stab, Stall, Stamm, Stand, Stock, Storch, Stoß, Strang, Strauch, Strauß, Strom, Strumpf, Stuhl, Sturm, Sturz, Sumpf, Tanz, Thurm, Ton (the tone), Topf, Trank, Traum, Trog, Trumpf, Umstand, Vogt, Vorhang, Vorrath, Vorschlag, Vorschuß, Vortrag, Vorwand, Wall, Wanst, Weinstock, Wolf, Wulst, Wunsch, Wurf, Wurm, Zahn, Zaum, Zaun, Zoll (toll), Zopf, Zug, Zustand, Zwang. *(b)* Neuters, Das Arsenal, pl. die Arsenäle; das Boot, pl. die Böte, (but also die Boote); das Chor, pl. die Chöre, das Floß, pl. die Flöße.

4. Several nouns of this declension borrow the plural number from the third, terminating in *en*. They are. Der Affect, the affection of the mind, passion, pl. die Affecten; der Aspect, the aspect, pl. die Aspecten; der Diamant (or Demant,) the diamond, pl. die Diamanten; das Insect, the insect, pl. die Insecten; das Leid, suffering, misfortune, pl. die Leiden; der Nachbar, the neighbour, pl. die Nachbarn; das Ohr, the ear, pl. die Ohren; der Quell, the source, pl. die Quellen; der Schmerz, the pain, pl. die Schmerzen; der See, the lake, pl. die Seen; der Sporn, the spur, pl. die Spornen: der Staat, the state, pl. die Staaten; der Strahl, the ray, or beam, pl. die Strahlen—but its compounds have the regular plural in *e*: for example, der Dreystrahl, Fünfstrahl, Sechsstrahl, (terms of mineralogy); der Ungar,

6. In this, as in the other declensions, some words are to be met with, that are only used in one number, either singular, or plural: of which an account will presently be given, in the additional remarks.

Additional Remarks on the Substantives.

1. Most of the nouns substantive have both numbers, the singular as well as the plural. But there are some, which, from the nature of their signification, or from the peculiar usage of the German tongue, occur only in one number. Few of them want the singular, the greater portion is deficient in the plural.

Those which have no plural, are partly such as are deprived of it, both in English and German, and partly such as are without it, in German alone.

A. Those which take the plural number neither in the English, nor in the German language, are:

1. The names of certain material substances; and some other words of a particular description. For example: Das Gold, gold; Silber, silver; Eiſen, iron; Kupfer, copper; Zinn, tin; Bley, lead; das Elfenbein, ivory; die Erde, earth; der Thon, the clay; der Staub, dust; das Holz, wood; das Fleiſch, flesh; der Speck, bacon; das Schmalz, lard; der Talg, tallow; das Mark, the marrow; das Mehl, meal, flour; das Malz, malt; das Getreide, corn; die Butter, butter; die Milch, milk: das Honig, honey; das Wachs, wax; der Speichel, spittle; der Miſt, dung; der Ruß, soot; der Roſt, rust; der Schlam, mud; der Schimmel, mould; der Schmutz, dirt; der Schnee, the snow; der Regen, the

the Hungarian, pl. die Ungarn; der Unterthan, the subject of a sovereign, pl. die Unterthanen; der Zierrath, the ornament, pl. die Zierrathen.

5. Some receive different terminations, in the plural, according to a difference in signification. *(a) E* and *en*: Das Bett, the bed, pl. Die Bette, the beds—die Betten, the parts composing the inside of a bed, the bedding; das Stück, the piece, plur. die Stücke, (sometimes, but improperly, Stücker), pieces—die Stücken, (but also Stücke), pieces of artillery. *(b) E, en,* and *er*: Das Band, the bond, ligament, ribbon, pl. die Bande, (Banden,) the bonds, fetters—die Bänder, the ribbons; das Ding, the thing, pl. die Dinge, the things, in a general sense—die Dinger, individual things; der Dorn, the thorn, pl. die Dornen, the thorns in general—die Dörner, the single thorns, the prickles; das Gesicht, the sight, the vision, the face, pl. die Gesichte, the visions, the sights—die Gesichter, the faces; das Horn, the horn, pl. die Horne, species, or kinds, of that substance—die Hörner, individual horns; das Land, the land, or country, pl. die Lande, territory, dominions—die Länder, individual countries; der Ort, the place, pl. die Orte, places, in a general sense, also passages from books—die Oerter, individual places; der Stahl, the steel, pl. die Stahle, kinds of steel—der Stähler, certain instruments made of steel; das Tuch, the cloth, pl. Tuche, kinds of woollen cloth—die Tücher, cloths, parts of dress, such as neckcloths; das Wort, the word, pl. die Worte, words in general, in Latin, *verba, dicta,* Fr. *paroles*—die Wörter, words of the vocabulary, Latin, *vocabula, dictiones,* Fr. *mots.*

rain; der Hagel, hail.—Of some the plural may be used technically, to denote the species: as, Die Erden, Silber, Kupfer, Zinne, Bleye, Hölzer, &c. the earths, silvers, coppers, tins, leads, woods, *i. e.* the species, or kinds, of earth, silver, copper, tin, lead, wood.

2. General, and abstract terms, such as: Der Ruhm, the glory; der Raub, pillage; die Beute, booty; der Pöbel, the populace; das Vieh, the cattle; der Putz, dress, finery; die Vernunft, human reason; der Wille, the will; die Stärke, strength; die Hitze, heat; die Wärme, warmth; die Kälte, cold; der Gehorsam, obedience; die Gewalt, force, violence; die Mühe, trouble; der Geitz, avarice; der Neid, envy; der Stolz, pride; der Hochmuth, haughtiness; die Armuth, poverty; die Jugend, youth; das Alter, old age; der Hunger, hunger; der Durst, thirst; der Schlaf, sleep; das Glück, luck, happiness: der Zorn, anger; der Eifer, zeal; die Eile, haste; der Fleiß, industry.

B. Such as admit the plural in English, but *not* in German.

1. The following words; Der Rath, the council, also counsel, advice; der Dank,* thanks; der Verstand, the understanding; der Lohn, the reward; der Kummer, sorrow; der Jammer, affliction, misery; der Mund, the mouth; der Sand, the sand; die Gunst, the favour; die Liebe, the love; die Furcht, the fear; das Lob, the praise; der Mord, the

* This word is rarely employed in the singular, in English.

murder; der Tadel, reprehension, blame; der Zwang, the constraint; das Leben, the life; der Tod, death; das Unglück, the misfortune; der Zank, the quarrel; der Streit, the contest; die Ankunft, the arrival; die Flucht, the flight, escape; der Anfang, the beginning; das Ende, the end, or conclusion; der Empfang, the receipt, the act of receiving; der Unterricht, instruction; das Gemurmel, the murmuring; der Urlaub, leave, permission; der Genuß, the enjoyment.—If the plural be required, it must be supplied by a synonymous word. For instance, Der Rath, the advice, counsel, pl. die Rathſchläge, from der Rathſchlag, the advice; der Rath, the council, pl. die Rathsverſammlungen, from die Rathsverſammlung, the meeting, or assembly, of a council; der Dank, pl. die Dankſagungen, from die Dankſagung, the act of thanking; der Lohn, reward, pl. Belohnungen, from die Belohnung, the reward; der Mund, the mouth, if the organ of speech be meant, pl. die Zungen, the tongues, from die Zunge; if the instrument of eating, die Mäuler, from das Maul, the mouth; das Lob, praise, pl. die Lobeserhebungen, the praises, from die Lobeserhebung, or die Lobreden, from die Lobrede, eulogy; der Tod, death, pl. die Todesfälle, deaths, from der Todesfall, the event of death, or die Todesarten, from die Todesart, the manner of dying, the kind of death; der Zank, the quarrel, pl. die Zänkereien, from die Zänkerey, the quarrel; der Streit, the contention, pl. die Streitigkeiten, from die Streitigkeit, the contest; das Unglück, the misfortune, pl. die Unglücksfälle, from der Unglücksfall, an unfortunate event; der Unterricht, instruction, pl. die Unterweiſungen, from die Unterweiſung, the instruction, or die Belehrungen, from die Belehrung, the information; der Urlaub,

permission, pl. die Erlaubniſſe, from die Erlaubniß, the permission.

2. Some names of plants: as, Der Kohl, the cabbage; der Hafer, the oats*; der Hopfen, hops*; das Schilf, the reed; die Kreſſe, cresses. Of some the plural is likewise unusual, in English; viz. der Klee, clover; der Knoblauch, the garlick; der Spargel, asparagus; der Flachs, the flax; der Hanf, the hemp; die Gerſte, the barley; der Weitzen, the wheat.—When the plural is to be expressed, some adjunct must be made use of, such as, die Art, the kind; die Pflanze, the plant: for example, zwey Pflanzen Kohl, two cabbages; die Kohlarten, the kinds of cabbage; die Kleepflanzen, plants of clover; die Kleearten, or Arten Klee, different kinds of clover. When the name of the plant ends in a simple *e*, and the adjunct is to follow it, the letter *n* is generally inserted: as, Gerſtenarten, Kreſſenpflanzen.

3. Words implying quantity, weight, or measure, are seldom used in the plural, although numerals, exceeding *One*, should be put before them. Of this kind are:

Der Acker, the acre: for example, zehn Acker Land, ten acres of land.

Das Buch, a quire (of paper): ex. drey Buch Papier, three quires of paper.

Das Bund, the bundle, truss, sheaf: ſechs Bund Stroh, six trusses of straw.

Das Dutzend, the dozen: zwanzig Dutzend Wein, twenty dozens of wine.

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* Not used in the singular, in English.

Das Faß, the cask: zwölf Faß Bier, twelve casks of beer.

Die Fauſt, the hand: vierzehn Fauſt hoch, fourteen hands high.

Der Grad, a mathematical degree: hundert Grad, hundred degrees.

Das Haupt, the head: vier Haupt Rindvieh, four heads of horned cattle.

Das Jahr, the year, as a measure of time. Zehn Jahr alt, ten years old.

Die (in some provinces, das) Klafter, the fathom: neun Klafter, nine fathoms.

Das Mahl, time, repetition of an act: as, ein Mahl, once; zwey Mahl, twice; drey Mahl, three times; vier Mahl, four times; ſechs Mahl, six times.

Der Mann, the man: as, die Compagnie iſt hundert Mann ſtark, the company is a hundred men strong.

Die Mark, the mark, a weight: as, zehn Mark Gold, ten marks of gold.

Das Paar, the pair: drey Paar Schuhe, three pair of shoes; ſechs Paar Strümpfe, six pair of stockings.

Note: Ein Paar, also signifies a few: ein Paar Tage, a few days.

Das Pfund, the pound: vier Pfund Zucker, four pounds of sugar.

Das Schock, a number of sixty: zwey Schock Aepfel, six score of apples.

Der Stein, the stone: vierzehn Stein ſchwer, fourteen stone weight.

Das Stück, the piece: ſieben Stück Tuch, seven pieces of cloth.

Das Zoll, an inch: fünf Zoll breit, five inches broad.

A few words are excepted from this rule, such as die Elle, or Ehle, the ell, or yard; die Meile, the mile; die Unze, the ounce: and some others, which must be learnt in practice. It is to be observed, that the substantives, which follow those nouns of measure, or quantity, are not declined, unless either a pronoun, or an adjective, be joined with them. When accompanied by pronouns, they stand in the genitive case, or the dative with the preposition von, of: ſechs Pfund dieſes Zuckers, or von dieſem Zucker, six pounds of this sugar: vier Faß jenes Weines, or von jenem Weine, four casks of that wine;— when by adjectives, they remain in the nominative, if no other word be in the sentence to govern them; or if there be such a word, for instance, a verb, or a preposition, they are put in the cases, required by either: as, Schicken Sie mir drey Dutzend guten Wein, und ſechs Pfund feinen Zucker, send me three dozens of good wine, and six pounds of fine sugar — guten Wein, and feinen Zucker, are accusative cases, governed by the verb ſchicken, to send. Thus with a preposition: Mit zehn Faß gutem Biere, und mit ſieben Stück fettem Viehe, with six casks of good beer, and seven heads of fat cattle; here, gutem Biere, fettem Viehe, are in the dative, governed by the preposition mit.—An adjective between a numeral and the term of quantity, or measure, corresponds with the numeral, so as to assume the plural form, when the number exceeds ONE; but it has, of itself, no effect, upon the substantive: as, ſechs geometriſche Fuß, six geometrical feet. When, however, a preposition, or a verb, governs the adjective, the word of quantity, or measure,

is likewise influenced by it: as, Ein Feld von hundert geometriſchen Fußen, a field of a hundred geometrical feet; where it would be improper to say, Fuß.—The word Paar, nevertheless, departs from this rule, and continues invariable under those circumstances: as, Geben Sie mir vier gute Paar Schuhe, give me four good pair of shoes; mit vier guten Paar Schuhen, with four good pair of shoes. Yet the substantive, after it, is affected by the governing word, as is seen in the last example, where Schuhen is the dative, on account of the preposition mit. Otherwise, when the term of quantity itself is governed, and varied in its case, the substantive, after it, may be put in the genitive, or left unaltered: as, Von ſechs geometriſchen Fußen Landes, or Land.—The English language somewhat resembles the German, in regard to the use of the singular number, in certain words of measure, or quantity: for example, *Ten pound of English money, twenty piece of cloth*, instead of *pounds, pieces;* though this is not deemed strictly correct.

C. The following words have no singular: Die Gefälle, the taxes; die Einkünfte, the revenue; die Koſten, the expences; die Unkoſten, the costs; die Aeltern, the parents: die Ahnen, the ancestors; die Beinkleider, the small clothes: die Hoſen,* the breeches; die Waffen, the weapons, arms; die Schranken, the bounds, the lists; die Gebrüder, the brothers; die Geſchwiſter, the brothers

* Die Hoſe, the breeches, in the singular number, is not unfrequently used, though this may, perhaps, be considered as provincial language.

and sisters; die Kriegesläufte, the course and events of war; die Zeitläufte, the course and events of the times; die Leute, the people; die Molken, the whey; die Truppen, the troops; die Briefschaften, letters, papers; die Franzosen, a disease; die Weihnachten, Christmas; die Ostern, Easter; die Pfingsten, Whitsuntide; die Gliedmaßen, the limbs; die Kaldaunen, the entrails. And some foreign words: as, Die Spesen, the expences; die Sporteln, the fees; die Annaten, the annuity; die Repressalien, the reprisals; die Insignien, the insignia.

II. The four declensions may be applied to *Proper Names*: but it will be necessary to add some observations upon these, in particular.—The inflection of the *Proper Names* is either indicated by the definite article, or by the termination. In some instances the former, and in others the latter seems to be preferable.

The article merely serves as a sign for the oblique cases, that is to say, for the genitive, dative, and accusative; and is not wanted for the nominative. When this article is prefixed, the termination remains unvaried.

EXAMPLES:

For the Masculine Gender.

Singular.	*Singular.*
Nom. Homer, Homer	Nom. Virgil, Virgil
Gen. Des Homer, of	Gen. Des Virgil, of
Dat. Dem Homer, to	Dat. Dem Virgil, to
Acc. Den Homer, Homer.	Acc. Den Virgil, Virgil.

For the Feminine Gender.

Singular.	*Singular.*
Nom. Flora, Flora	Nom. Sappho, Sappho
Gen. Der Flora, of	Gen. Der Sappho, of
Dat. Der Flora, to	Dat. Der Sappho, to
Acc Die Flora, Flora.	Acc. Die Sappho, Sappho.

It seems to be unnecessary, and is perhaps wrong, to vary the termination of the genitive, when the article is used, and to say, for instance, des Homer's, des Virgil's; since the article is employed for the sole purpose of showing the case. Again, it is improper to leave out the article in the accusative case, and to say, for example, Ich lese Virgil, ich lese Homer, I read Virgil, I read Homer, for den Virgil, den Homer; ich sehe Sappho, I see Sappho; ich liebe Flora, I love Flora, for die Sappho, die Flora.

The second mode of declining *Proper Names*, is by varying the ending of the oblique cases. The characteristick addition for the genitive is *s*, (sometimes *es*, *ns*, *ens*); and for the dative and accusative *n*, when the word ends in a vowel, or in *l*, *r*; and *en*, when it ends in a consonant, except *l* and *r*. Female names ending in *a*, change this vowel, before the *n*, into *e*.

EXAMPLES:

For the Masculine Gender.

Singular.	*Singular.*
Nom. Beccaria, Beccaria	Nom. Heyne, Heyne
Gen. Beccaria's, of	Gen. Heyne's, of
Dat. Beccaria'n, to	Dat. Heynen, to
Acc. Beccaria'n, Beccaria.	Acc. Heynen, Heyne.

Singular.	*Singular.*
Nom. Jacobi, Jacobi	Nom. Cato, Cato
Gen. Jacobi's, of	Gen. Cato's, of
Dat. Jacobi'n, to	Dat. Cato'n, to
Acc. Jacobi'n, Jacobi.	Acc. Cato'n, Cato.
Nom. Jablonſky, Jablonsky	Nom. Fagel, Fagel
Gen. Jablonſky's, of	Gen. Fagel's, of
Dat. Jablonſky'n, to	Dat. Fageln, to
Acc. Jablonſky'n, Jablonsky.	Acc. Fageln, Fagel.
Nom. Kant, Kant	Nom. Schulz, Schulz
Gen. Kant's, of	Gen. Schulz'es, or Schulz'ens, of
Dat. Kanten, to	Dat. Schulzen, to
Acc. Kanten, Kant.	Acc. Schulzen, Schulz.

For the Feminine Gender.

Singular.	*Singular.*
Nom. Diana, Diana	Nom. Friederike, Frederica
Gen. Diana's, or Dianen's, of.	Gen. Friederike'ns, of
Dat. Dianen, to	Dat. Friederiken, to
Acc. Dianen, Diana.	Acc. Friederiken, Frederica.

Nom. Sappho, Sappho
Gen. Sappho's, of
Dat. Sappho'n, to
Acc. Sappho'n, Sappho.

Instead of the simple *s*, in the genitive case—*es*, or *ens*, must be added, in words that end in *s*, *ss*, *sch*, *x*, *z*, *tz*: as, Mylius, gen. Myliuſſes, or Myliuſſens; Fuchs, Friſch, gen. Fuchſens, Friſchens, in which two last examples, *ens* may be thought preferable to *es*, because a distinction is thus made between Fuchſes, the gen. of der Fuchs, the fox, and that proper name; and likewise between friſches, the neuter of the adjective friſch, and the proper name. Max, gen. Maxes, or Maxens; Schulz, gen. Schulzes, or Schulzens; Franz, gen. Franzes, or Franzens; Moritz, gen. Moritzes, or Moritzens. The addition of *s* alone would here create an offensive harshness.

The characteristick letters *ns*, or *ens*, of the genitive case, are always appropriated to female names, ending in *e*, as, Friederike, gen. Friederikens; and very often to those which end in *a*, as, Flora, gen. Florens; Europa, gen. Europens. Nor are they uncommon in male names, ending in *e*, or a consonant, except *l* and *r*. For example: Heyne, gen. Heynens; Kant, gen. Kantens; Wolf, gen. Wolfens; though it is more consistent with modern usage, in these names, to omit the *n*, or *en*, before the *s*.

Names ending in *as*, *es*, *os*, *us*, do not well bear the usual terminations of the genitive, in *es*, or *ens*; for the sound, which is thus produced, is disagreeable. It is therefore avoided, when it conveniently can be done. Most names, of those endings, are from the Latin; and not unfrequently, the Latin termination of the genitive is adopted: as, Das Leiden Chriſti, the sufferings of Christ; das Leben Alcibiadis, the life of Alcibiades; where *Christi* and *Alcibiadis* are the Latin genitives, from *Christus*,

Alcibiades, instead of the German Chriſtuſſes, Alcibiadeſſes, or Chriſtuſens, Alcibiadeſens. Another method of superseding the awkward sound of the latter, is not to give any distinctive termination to the genitive at all; and to say, Chriſtus Leiden, Alcibiades Leben; or das Leiden Chriſtus, das Leben Alcibiades; yet the last is more unusual: for the genitive, void of any other mark of discrimination, may, in a manner, be distinguished by being placed before the noun that governs it; but not so well, when it stands after. Sometimes, the preposition von, of, may be of service, though it is not always applicable; and occasionally an irregular abbreviation is resorted to, as, Achelones, from Achelous, which should be Acheloufſens. But the most obvious and best mode, is the use of the article.

As there are two ways of declining proper names, it may be asked, when, and how, each of them is to be employed?

The first mode, with the article, answers almost every purpose, except when the genitive case is to precede the word, by which it is governed. The variable terminations ought then to be used: as, Homer's Ilias, the Iliad of Homer; Virgil's Aeneis, Virgil's Æneid; not des Homer Ilias, des Virgil Aeneis. Here, if the article were prefixed, the termination *s* could not be dispensed with, and the article would be a superfluous addition.—After a demonstrative pronoun, the genitive of male names always takes the *s*, when that case is put before the word, on which it depends: as, Dieſes Cicero's Schriften, the writings of this Cicero; jenes Virgil's Gedichte, the poems of that Virgil.—The endings *n*, and *en*, in the dative and accu-

sative, occur more frequently in the language of common life, than in accurate composition: and the article seems now to be generally preferred. Yet there may be circumstances, in which the use of those terminations must be allowed. In some provinces, they are even added to the dative and accusative cases of common appellatives, supplying the place of the article: as, Sage es Vatern, tell the father, dat. for dem Vater; rufe Brudern, Muttern, call the brother, the mother, for den Bruder, die Mutter. This, however, is a barbarism.—Sometimes, the dative and accusative are not discriminated from the nominative, either by the article, or the termination: as, Ich habe es Schlegel gesagt, I told Schlegel, for dem Schlegel, or Schlegeln; haben Sie Cicero gelesen, have you read Cicero; haben Sie Pitt gesehen, have you seen Pitt, for den Cicero, or Ciceron, and den Pitt, or Pitten. But this deviation from the rule can hardly be justified; though it must be acknowledged, that it is by no means uncommon, especially after prepositions, and after transitive verbs. When a substantive, whether a title or other appellative, with the article, stands before a proper name, the latter remains undeclined: as, Des Philosophen Kant, of the philosopher Kant; des Dichters Bürger, of the poet Bürger; des Kaisers Joseph, of the Emperour Joseph. But, if the substantive is not attended with an article, the prope name must be varied in its termination, at least in the genitive case; as, König Friederich's Siege, King Frederick's victories; Herrn Leiser's Schriften, Mr. Leiser's writings. In the first example it is to be remarked, that, grammatically, König, ought to be Königes, or Königs; but, as the proper

name, belonging to this appellative, has the same characteristick ending, it is omitted in the latter, to spare the reiteration of the hissing sound. It is not necessary to vary the proper name, when the preceding title, or appellative, is in the dative, or accusative: as, Er hat es dem Herrn Richter erzählt, he has told it to Mr. R.; wir haben den Doctor Herschel gesehen, we have seen Dr. H.— When two or more names stand in apposition, the last only requires the characteristick ending of the oblique case: for example, Emanuel Kant's Werke, the works of Emanuel Kant; Johann Georg Heinrich Feder's Schriften, the writings of John George Henry Feder. When the surname is preceded by the term von, which implies nobility, the last Christian name takes the termination: as, der Name Carl Friederich's von Wangenheim, the name of Charles Frederick of Wangenheim; das Andenken Wilhelm Gottfried's von Leibnitz, the memory of William Godfrey de Leibnitz. A common substantive, being in apposition to a proper name, must be put in the same case: as, Das Leben Carl's des zwölften, Königes von Schweden, the life of Charles the twelfth, king of Sweden.

The names of countries, and places, admit the *s* in the genitive, but not *n* in the other cases: as, Deutschlands blühender Zustand, the flourishing state of Germany. The dative and accusative are, therefore, like the nominative. Sometimes the dative may end in *e*, when the word is referred to the fourth declension: as, In dem volkreichen Deutschlande, in the populous country of Germany. The article never can be prefixed to such names, unless an adjective, or participle, intervenes, as in the last

example. The genitive is not unfrequently represented by the preposition von, as, die Könige von England, the kings of England.

A male name may be converted into a female, by the addition of the syllable *inn*:* as, Heyne; die Heyninn, Heyne's wife, or daughter. Yet this is not a very elegant manner of conveying the idea, and is generally exchanged for some other mode of expression.

We have hitherto spoken of the *Singular Number* of proper names; if a *Plural* be wanted, it may, perhaps, in general, be recommended to form it, according to the gender and termination of the word, after one of the four declensions: namely, in feminines, after the first; in masculines, ending in *el*, *en*, *er*, after the second; in those in *e* and *st* (of more than one syllable), after the third; and in the rest, after the fourth. But it is not to be denied, that frequently an uncouthness would be thus produced; as, for example, if you were to say die Bacone, die Prieſtleye, the Bacons, the Priestleys. In such instances, it is better to have recourse to the letter *s*, as the index of the plural, though it is not a genuine German termination for that number. It has been once before called in aid, when we were speaking of certain nouns substantive, ending in *a*, in the second declension.† Let us farther observe, that the plurals to be formed after the third declension, may be objected to

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* This is in some provinces, turned into *en*, as, die Heynen, Mrs. or Miss, Heyne.

† See p. 149. Obs. 2.

for this reason, that the termination *en* is liable to be mistaken for the female ending, sometimes used instead of *inn:* as, Die Theophraſten, for Theophraſtinn, the wife or daughter of Theophrastus; die Heynen, for Heyninn, the wife, or daughter, of Heyne. I have, therefore, suggested, in another place,* the expediency of referring the words in *st* to the fourth declension: as, Theophraſt, plur. die Theophraſte, the Theophrasti; and of applying to those, which have the singular in *e*, the letter *s*, or rather *ns:* as, Die Göthens, die Heynens, the Göthes, the Heynes. Most of the female names make their plural in *en*, conformably to the first declension; as, Diana, Friederike, plur. die Dianen, die Friederiken;—those in *o*, by the addition of *n*, or *s*, as Sappho, plur. die Sapphon, or die Sapphos.

Every proper name may, like a common substantive, be lessened into a diminutive, by means of the syllable *chen*, or *lein*, (of which see above): for example, Carlchen, little Charles; Dianchen, little Diana. These diminutives belong all, without exception, to the second declension of substantives, and are of the neuter gender.†

III. It may be remarked that, wherever no article can be employed, the genitive case is generally characterized by the letter *s*. This is to be seen in compound words: as, Das Liebesband, the bond of love, instead of

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* Exercises, p. 17, note 5 (4th ed.)

† See p. 150, Obs. 5; and p. 125. Obs. 7.

das Band der Liebe; das Hülfsmittel, a means or expedient; from das Mittel, and die Hülfe; das Arbeitshaus, the work-house, from das Haus, and die Arbeit; der Geburtstag, the birth-day, from der Tag, and die Geburt; die Auslegungskunst, the art of interpretation, from die Kunst, and die Auslegung; and though it is not used in all compounds, yet in these and others, the power of the *s* is clearly manifested.

IV. Foreign words, which have been received into the German language, must be adapted to one of the four declensions; or take the *s*, for their plural termination.*

SECTION IV.

THE DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

NOUNS adjective assume four different forms.

The First Form

is adverbial, that is to say, without a declinable termina-

* The precept here given coincides with the notions of Quintilian, Inst. Or. 1, 5. *Inde illa quæstio oritur, an eâdem ratione per casus duci externa, quâ nostra conveniat.—Mihi autem placet Latinam rationem sequi, quousque patitur decor. In cæteris quæ poterunt utroque modo non indecenter efferri, qui Græcam figuram sequi malit, non Latine quidem, sed citra reprehensionem loquetur.*

tion. In this form the adjective appears, when it is not placed before a substantive, nor preceded by an article, or a pronoun.

The Second Form

is made use of, when the adjective stands before a substantive, without an article preceding. It is declined with three genders, in the singular number: the plural has only one termination, for all genders. These are the terminations:

Singular.				*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem	Neut.	
Nom.	*er,*	*e,*	*es,*	Nom. *e.*
Gen.	*es,*	*er,*	*es.*	Gen. *er.*
Dat.	*em,*	*er,*	*em.*	Dat. *en.*
Acc.	*en,*	*e,*	*es.*	Acc. *e.*

The Third Form

is governed by the definite article, Der, die, das. Three genders in the singular.

Singular.				*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	*e,*	*e,*	*e.*	Nom. *en.*
Gen.	*en,*	*en,*	*en.*	Gen. *en.*
Dat.	*en,*	*en,*	*en.*	Dat. *en.*
Acc.	*en,*	*e,*	*e.*	Acc. *en.*

The Fourth Form

is preceded by the indefinite article, Ein, eine, ein; or a possessive pronoun, as, Mein, meine, mein, my.

Three genders in the singular.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	*er,*	*e,*	*es.*	Nom. *en.*
Gen.	*en,*	*en,*	*en.*	Gen. *en.*
Dat.	*en,*	*en,*	*en.*	Dat. *en.*
Acc.	*en,*	*e,*	*es.*	Acc. *en.*

First Form.

This is the original, of which the following are modifications. In that form the adjective always is seen, when it is unconnected with any article, or pronoun, before, or any substantive, after it. It is in this form, that is to be looked for in the dictionary.

As it is not declined, it wants the terminations, which serve for the purpose of inflection. Examples: Gut, good; groß, great; klein, little; roth, red; weiß, white. In this shape it remains, when it is put after a substantive: as, Cäſar klug und tapfer, Cæsar prudent, and brave. It is of no consequence, whether the substantive be of the singular, or plural number; the adjective, when placed after it, is invariable: for example, Die Römer kühn und herrſchſüchtig, the Romans bold, and ambitious. The same after a verb: as, Der Mann iſt

gut, the man is good; die Farbe heißt roth, the colour is called red; es iſt kalt, it is cold. Nor does the number of the verb, singular or plural, make any difference: as, Sie ſind groß, they are great.

Adjectives, in the first form, mostly terminate in consonants. Some end in the diphthongs *au*, *eu*, *ey:* as, Grau, grey; treu, faithful; frey, free; and several in *e*. as, Blöde, bashful; bange, anxious; enge, narrow; geſchwinde, quick; böſe, bad, naughty, or angry; trübe, not clear, troubled.

Second Form.

When the adjective is placed before the substantive, to which it belongs, without an article antecedent, it stands in this form, which is declined in the following manner:

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	M.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Guter,	Gute,	Gutes.	Nom. Gute.
Gen.	Gutes,	Guter,	Gutes.	Gen. Guter.
Dat.	Gutem,	Guter,	Gutem.	Dat. Guten.
Acc.	Guten,	Gute,	Gutes.	Acc. Gute.

Examples: Guter Wein, good wine; gute Milch, good milk; gutes Bier, good beer.

Observations.

1. When two or more adjectives are before the same substantive, without an article preceding them, they ought all to submit to the second form, as in these exam-

ples: Guter, alter, rother Wein, good, old, red wine; gute, ſüße, friſche Milch, good, sweet, new milk; gutes, ſtarkes, braunes Bier, good, strong, brown beer. But in the genitive and dative cases singular, and in the genitive plural, it often happens, that only the first adjective complies with this mode of declension, and the others adopt the termination *en*. This is admitted, with the intention of avoiding a disagreeable repetition of *es*, *em*, *er*. For instance, gen. sing. Gutes, alten, rothen Weines; guter, ſüßen Milch; dat. sing. gutem, ſtarken, braunen Biere; gen. pl. guter, alten Weine. The ending *es* is, in the adjective even, sometimes, displaced by *en*, when only a substantive, in *s*, follows; as, Guten Theils, in a great degree; andern Theils, on the other hand; meiſten Theils, for the most part; größten Theils, for the greatest part; widrigen Falls, in a contrary case; folgenden Tages, the day following; den erſten Jun verwichenen Jahres, the first of June of last year; guten Muthes, of good cheer; trockenen Fußes, with a dry foot; ſtehenden Fußes, without loss of time; alten Urſprunges, of old original; eine Art wollenen Zeuges, a kind of worsted. The repetition of *er* is less objectionable, than that of *es;* and I think it preferable to an iteration of *en*: as, Guter, ſüßer, friſcher Milch, better than guter, ſüßen, friſchen Milch. In the following example, *en* would certainly be less pleasing to the ear: Eine Reihe wohlklingender Deutſcher Verſe, a series of harmonious German verses; Ueberſetzungen alter Griechiſcher und Lateiniſcher Schriftſteller, translations of ancient Greek and Latin authors: in which, if *en* be substituted for *er*, in Deutſchen, Griechiſchen, Lateiniſchen, the harmony of the sentence is diminished. The *er* should not be unnecessarily removed, as

is sometimes done: Nach Beda guten Anleitung, after the good precepts of Beda; mit deines Vaters gütigen Erlaubniß, with your father's kind permission; um Amalie'ns ſchönen Geſtallt willen, for the sake of Amlia's beautiful countenance; Alceſt's weiſen Ermahnung eingedenk, mindful of Alcest's wise admonition: where it should be guter, gütiger, ſchöner, weiſer.—The termination *en* belongs to the third and fourth forms, so that, when it is anywhere else adopted, an intermixture of the forms may be said to take place. It is not unusual to see it employed in the vocative case: as, Lieben Leute, good people, for liebe Leute.*

2. It is doubtful, whether after the following plurals: Alle, all; wenige, few; mehrere, many, several; etliche, some, sundry; einige, some; manche, several; ſolche, such; ſelbige, such—the adjectives ought to be placed in the second, or in the subsequent forms. And it is to be remarked, that, in the nominative and accusative cases, the second form *is* generally used, after einige, etliche, viele, wenige, manche, mehrere; and after, alle, ſelbige, ſolche, it *may* be used†: but in the genitive the termination *en*, of the other forms, should always be preferred. Examples:

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* For this practice Wieland, and other good authorities, may be quoted. The irregularity would be done away by understanding a personal pronoun, before the vocative: as, Ihr lieben Leute.

† Wieland forms all the cases of the plural in *en*, after alle.

Plural.

Nom. Einige gute Leute, some good people.
Gen. Einiger guten Leute, of some
Dat. Einigen guten Leute, to some
Acc. Einige gute Leute, some good people.

Nom. Alle gute Menſchen, all good men.
Gen. Aller guten Menſchen, of all
Dat. Allen guten Menſchen, to all
Acc. Alle gute Menſchen, all good men.

3. Words that are not declined, such as adverbs, some adjectives, and most of the cardinal numbers, have no influence upon the adjective. When, therefore, after such words, it is followed by a substantive, it will appear in the second form. For example: sing. masc. Sehr guter Wein, very good wine; pl. ſehr gute Menſchen, very good people; sing. fem. etwas kalte Milch, some cold milk; sing neut. viel weiſſes Brodt, a great deal of (or much) white bread; wenig ſtarkes Bier, a small quantity of (or little) strong beer. Plural with numerals: Zwanzig tapfere Männer, twenty brave men; zehn ſchöne Frauen, ten handsome women; vier kleine Kinder, four little children. Sing. and pl. Allerley buntes Papier, all kinds of variegated paper; allerley ſchöne Sachen, all sorts of fine things. The same with allerhand, all kinds; mancherley, several kinds.

Third Form.

When the definite article, or a pronoun demonstrative, relative, interrogative, or the adjectives, Mancher, jeder, jedweder, jeglicher, go before.

It is thus declined:

1. *With the Definite Article.*

Singular.

Nom.	Der gute,	die gute,	das gute.
Gen.	Des guten,	der guten,	des guten.
Dat.	Dem guten,	der guten,	dem guten.
Acc.	Den guten,	die gute,	das gute.

Plural.

Nom.	Die guten.
Gen.	Der guten.
Dat.	Den guten.
Acc.	Die guten.

Examples: nom. Der gute Mann, the good man; die gute Frau, the good woman; das gute Kind, the good child;—gen. des guten Mannes, der guten Frau, des guten Kindes, &c.

2. *With a Pronoun Demonstrative.*

Singular.

Nom.	Dieser gute,	diese gute,	dieses gute.
Gen.	Dieses guten,	dieser guten,	dieses guten.
Dat.	Diesem guten,	dieser guten,	diesem guten.
Acc.	Diesen guten,	diese gute,	dieses gute.

Plural.

Nom.	Diese guten.
Gen.	Dieser guten.
Dat.	Diesen guten.
Acc.	Diese guten.

Examples: Dieſer gute Sohn, this good son; dieſe gute Tochter, this good daughter; dieſes gute Kind, this good child, &c.

3. *With a Pronoun Relative, or Interrogative.*

Singular.

Nom.	Welcher gute,	welche gute,	welches gute.
Gen.	Welches guten,	welcher guten,	welches guten.
Dat.	Welchem guten,	welcher guten,	welchem guten.
Acc.	Welchen guten,	welche gute,	welches gute.

Plural.

Nom. Welche guten.
Gen. Welcher guten.
Dat. Welchen guten.
Acc. Welche guten.

Examples: Welcher gute Mann, which good man; welche gute Frau, which good woman; welches gute Kind, which good child, &c.—Welcher, like *which*, in English, is used both in a relative, and interrogative signification.

4. With the adjectives, Mancher, many a one; jeder, jedweder, jeglicher, each, every.

Singular.

Nom.	Mancher gute,	manche gute,	manches gute.
Gen.	Manches guten,	mancher guten,	manches guten.
Dat.	Manchem guten,	mancher guten,	manchem guten,
Acc.	Manchen guten,	manche gute,	manches gute.

Plural.

Nom. Manche guten, (more commonly, gute).
Gen. Mancher guten.
Dat. Manchen guten.
Acc. Manche guten, (more commonly, gute.)

Examples: Mancher gute Vater, many a good father; menſche gute Mutter, many a good mother; manches gute Kind, many a good child. In the same manner, jeder, jede, jedes; jedweder, jedwede, jedwedes, and jeglicher, jegliche, jegliches.

Observations.

1. The demonstrative pronouns, as many as there are, (see the following chapter), govern the adjective in this form. Of relatives and interrogatives there are none, which can be joined with an adjective, besides the one mentioned.

2. Some participles, which are used in a demonstrative capacity, seem to have the same influence upon the declension of the adjective. Of this description are: Beſagt, aforesaid; folgend, following; gedacht, aforementioned. For example: Beſagter alte Mann, the said old man; gedachtes neue Haus, the new house mentioned; folgendes ſchöne Werk, the following beautiful work. Sing. nom. Beſagter alte Mann, the said old man; gen. beſagtes alten Mannes, of the said old man; dat. beſagtem alten Manne, to ——; acc. beſagten alten Mann, the said old man. Plural nom. Beſagte alten Männer, the said old men; gen. beſagter alten Männer, of ——; dat. beſagten alten

Männern, to ——; acc. beſagte alten Männer, the said old men, &c.

Fourth Form.

This form takes place after the indefinite article, after cardinal numbers which are declined ;* after the negative adjective Kein, none; and after pronouns personal, and possessive. The inflection is as follows:

1. *With the Indefinite Article, and some Numerals.*

Singular.

Nom.	Ein guter,	eine gute,	ein gutes,
Gen.	Eines guten,	einer guten,	eines guten.
Dat.	Einem guten,	einer guten,	einem guten.
Acc.	Einen guten,	eine gute,	ein gutes.

Examples: Ein guter Mann, a good man; eine gute Frau; ein gutes Kind. Gen. Eines guten Mannes, &c.

There is no plural to the indefinite article. It serves also for the numeral *One*, and, as such, is declined in

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* Such are only the first numeral, Ein, eine, ein, throughout the singular; and zwey, two, drey, three, in the genitive and dative cases. The nominative and accusative of zwey and drey, which have no variable terminations, have the character of other cardinal numbers, and do not affect the adjective, but leave it, before the substantive, in the second form: for example, Zwey ſtarke Männer, two strong men; drey junge Mädchen, three young girls; vier kleine Knaben, four little boys.

the same manner. Of the other numerals, Zwey, two, and Drey, three are only declined, in the genitive and dative, when put before adjectives, in this manner:

Plural.

Nom. Zwey (drey) gute Leute, two (three) good people.
Gen. Zweyer (dreyer) guten, of two (three)
Dat. Zweyen, (dreyen), guten, to—
Acc. Zwey, (drey), gute Leute, two (or three) good people.

Observations.

1. When the numerals have no declinable termination, as here, in the nominative, and accusative cases, the adjective after them remains in the second form.*

2. The word Beide, both, is to be considered as such a numeral, and the adjective after it to be put in the second form, in the nominative and accusative cases.

2. *With the Negative* Kein, *none.*

Singular.

Nom.	Kein guter,	keine gute,	kein gutes.
Gen.	Keines guten,	keiner guten,	keines guten.
Dat.	Keinem guten,	keiner guten,	keinem guten.
Acc.	Keinen guten,	keine gute,	kein gutes.

Plural.

Nom.	Keine guten,	Dat.	Keinen guten.
Gen.	Keiner guten,	Acc.	Keine guten.

See Elements, (2nd edit.) p. 25.

Examples: Kein guter Mann, no good man; keine gute Frau, kein gutes Kind, &c.

3. *With a Personal Pronoun.*

Singular.

Nom.	Ich armer,	Ich arme,	Ich armes.
Gen.	(not usual in the personal pronoun).		
Dat.	Mir armen,	Mir armen,	Mir armen.
Acc.	Mich armen,	Mich arme,	Mich armes.

Plural.

Nom.	Wir armen,	Dat.	Uns armen.
Gen.	(not used).	Acc.	Uns armen.

The same with the other personal pronouns, Du, thou; Er, he; Sie, she.

Examples: Ich armer Mann, I poor man; Ich arme Frau, I poor woman; Ich armes Kind, I poor child;—Du frommer Sohn, thou dutiful son; du fromme Tochter, thou dutiful daughter; du frommes Lamm, thou gentle lamb.

4. *With a Possessive Pronoun.*

Singular.

Nom.	Mein guter,	meine gute,	mein gutes.
Gen.	Meines guten,	meiner guten,	meines guten.
Dat.	Meinem guten,	meiner guten,	meinem guten.
Acc.	Meinen guten,	meine gute,	mein gutes.

Plural.

Nom.	Meine guten.	Dat.	Meinen guten.
Gen.	Meiner guten.	Acc.	Meine guten.

The same with the other possessives: as, Dein, thy; ſein, his, its; ihr, her; unſer, our; euer, your; ihr, their.

Additional Remarks on the Adjectives.

1. When the adjective, in the first form, ends in *el* or *er*, the *e*, before *l* and *r*, is in the other forms, generally, thrown out, for instance: Edel, noble,

2*d. form*,	Edler,	edle,	edles.
Gen.	edles,	edler,	edles, &c.
3*d. form*,	Der edle,	die edle,	das edle.
Gen.	des edlen,	der edlen,	des edlen, &c.
4*th. form*,	Ein edler,	eine edle,	ein edles.
Gen.	eines edlen,	einer edlen,	eines edlen, &c.

In the same manner: Lauter, pure, unmixed.

2*d. form*,	Lautrer,	lautre,	lautres.
Gen.	lautres,	lautrer,	lautres, &c.
3*d. form*,	Der lautre,	die lautre,	das lautre, &c.
4*th. form*,	Ein lautrer,	eine lautre,	ein lautres, &c.

Frequently the *e*, which remains, is put before *l* and *r*, when the termination is in *n*: as, edeln, instead of edlen; lautern, instead of lautren.

II. The adjective Hoch, high, has this peculiarity, that, in the other forms, the final *ch* is exchanged for the simple *h*, viz.

2*d. form*,	Hoher,	hohe,	hohes.
3*d. form*,	Der hohe,	die hohe,	das hohe.
4*th. form*,	Ein hoher,	eine hohe,	ein hohes.

The circumstance has been adverted to, and accounted

for, p. 60, second note. Compare also what is said of the comparative and superlative degrees, p. 210.

III. The terminations of some adjectives are not perfectly ascertained, and settled, chiefly of those that end in *ich, icht, ig;* which syllables are often promiscuously employed, in the same words: for example, Blumig, blumich, blumicht—though some grammarians maintain, that a distinction ought to be made between these syllables. Namely *ig*, or *ich*, they say, relates to the matter, or substance, of which a thing consists, or is made; and *icht* signifies similitude, or resemblance: as, Blumig, or blumich, flowery, full of flowers; blumicht, flower-like, resembling flowers. Thus, Kupferig, coppery, containing copper; kupfericht, coppery, resembling copper, like copper.

IV. Some adjectives are never declined, and others only, when an article, or pronoun, is before them. Of the first description are, those ending in *ley:* as, Einerley, of one kind, or of the same kind; zweierley, of two kinds; dreierley, of three kinds; viererley, of four kinds; &c.; allerley, of all kinds; mancherley, of several kinds; vielerley, of many kinds. Add to these, allerhand, of all kinds, of all sorts; and the word einander, one another, each other; etwas, something of, some. Examples: Etwas Bier, some beer; allerley Wein, wine of various, or all, kinds; allerhand Sachen, things of all kinds; *mit* einander, with one another. Of the second class are, ganz, all, whole; halb, half. Examples: without an article, or pronoun, Ganz Deutschland, all Germany, or whole Germany; halb Frankreich, half France, that is, the half of

France: with an article, or pronoun, Der ganze Stamm, the whole tribe, gen. des ganzen Stammes, &c. dieſe ganze Stadt, this whole town; mein ganzes Dorf, my whole village; die halbe Welt, half the world.

V. The adjectives viel, much, and wenig, little, are frequently used in the first, or adverbial form, before substantives: as, Viel Wein, much wine; wenig Wein, little wine; instead of vieler, weniger Wein. So in the other genders, viel Milch, wenig Milch, much milk, little milk; instead of viele, wenige; viel Bier, wenig Bier, much beer, little beer; instead of vieles, weniges. This does not correspond with the rule, yet it is justified by usage. It is particularly common in wenig, which is left in its adverbial state, though a preposition should go before: as, Mit wenig Geld, with little money. Viel, after a preposition, is generally declined, but not always: Mit viel Augen dich anzuſchaun,* with many eyes to behold thee; where vielen ought to have been put, instead of viel. When the definite article, or any pronoun, stands before these adjectives, they must be declined: as, Das viele Geld, the great quantity of money; gen. des vielen Geldes, &c.

Dieſes viele Geld, this great quantity of money;
mein vieles Geld, my great quantity of money.
Das wenige Geld, the small quantity of money;
jenes wenige Geld, that small quantity of money;
dein weniges Geld, thy small quantity of money, &c.

Whenever any grammatical irregularity can be obviated, it should be done. Therefore, where these ad-

* Herder.

jectives may be brought to comply with the general rules, it will be right to subject them to such laws. It is not wrong to say, weniges Geld, vieles Geld, instead of wenig, viel; mit wenigem Gelde, instead of mit wenig: and the former mode of expression should be preferred, upon the principle of grammatical accuracy.—Wenig, with the indefinite article before it, is not declined, nor is the article, joined with it, inflected: as, Ein wenig Wein, a little wine; mit ein wenig Wein, with a little wine; um ein wenig Weins willen, for the sake of a little wine. It has the declinable termination, after that article, when it is used as a substantive: as, ein Weniges, a small quantity. —Viel and wenig, sometimes govern the genitive case: as, Viel Volkes, a great multitude of people; viel Viehes, a great number of cattle; wenig Wassers, a small quantity of water. This is rather an antiquated mode of speaking; but it is not uncommon to use those words, *after* the genitive case, in the following and similar phrases: Es giebt der gottlosen Leute viel, there is a great number of wicked people; es sind unser viel, there are many of us; es sind ihrer wenig, there are few of them. The words, der gottlosen Leute, unser, ihrer, are genitive cases, governed by viel and wenig. In a question, viel and wenig, must naturally be placed before the genitive: as, Wie viel sind ihrer, how many are there of them? Wie wenig sind ihrer, how few are there of them? The fact is, that Viel, and Wenig are, in these instances, invested with the power of substantives.—Synonymous with Viel is the word die Menge, a great number, great quantity, plenty: as, Volkes die Menge, plenty of people; Neider der Menge, a great number of enviers; Weiber die Menge, plenty of

women.*—What has been said of viel, and wenig, applies, in every particular, to their comparatives, mehr, more, and weniger, less. These also stand adverbially, or in the first form, before substantives, and have the same latitudes, and the same limitations, as the former. Mehr Geld, more money, and weniger Geld, less money; instead of mehres, wenigeres. And like the others, they occasionally govern the genitive case: as, Solcher Leute mehr, more such people; unſer ſind mehr, there are more of us; ihrer ſind weniger, there are fewer of them; where, ſolcher Leute, unſer, ihrer, are genitive cases.—Vieles and Weniges, the neuters of the second form, occur in a substantive capacity, denoting great quantity, little quantity.

VI. Common adjectives are sometimes used in the first, when they should be in one of the other forms: for instance, Schön Wetter, fine weather, instead of ſchönes Wetter; ein groß Glück, a great piece of luck, instead of, ein großes Glück; ein reizen Weib, a charming woman, instead of, ein reizendes Weib; ein gut Glas Wein, a good glass of wine, for ein gutes Glas Wein. Though it only occurs in the neuter gender, it is fundamentally wrong, and must not be imitated.

VII. When two adjectives, of the same ending, are before one substantive, the termination of the first is sometimes, for the sake of brevity, suppressed: Ein roth= und weiſſes Geſicht, a red and white face, for ein rothes und weiſſes; Perſonen männ= und weiblichen Geſchlechtes, persons of the male

* See Appendix to the Elements Sect. II, Note 142.

and female sex, for männlichen; ein genüg= und arbeitſamer Menſch, a contented and industrious man, for genügſamer; bley= und kupferartiges Erz, ore containing lead and copper, for bleyartiges; ein gram= und ſorgenfreies Gemüth, a mind free from grief and sorrow, for gramfreies. This abreviation should not be unnecessarily adopted; but in particular situations, it is convenient, and sounds well. It is also to be met with in nouns substantive, as Genüg= und Arbeitſamkeit, contentment and industry, for Genügſamkeit; and generally indicated by the sign of hyphen (=). The Spaniards use a similar mode of contraction.

VIII. All participles share in the nature of adjectives. They are capable of the same modifications, according to four forms, and subject to the same laws. They will be treated of, in a subsequent part of this Grammar.

IX. Adjectives may be converted into substantives. This is either done elliptically, or abstractedly.

1. *Elliptically*, when a substantive is understood. Examples: Der Deutſche, (supply Mann), the German, native of Germany; der Gelehrte, (supply Mann), the learned man, the scholar; der Weiſe, (supply Mann), the wise man; der Weltweiſe, the philosopher; der Liebſte, or der Geliebte, (sup. Mann), the beloved man, the lover; (der Liebſte, also signifies the husband; die Liebſte, the wife); der Oberſte, (sup. Mann), the man highest in command, the colonel; der Geſandte, (sup. Mann), the man sent, the ambassadour; der Bediente, for Bedienende. (sup. Mann), the waiting man, the man servant; der Reiſende, (sup. Mann), the traveller; der Verwandte, (sup. Mann), the man related, the relation; der Bekannte, (sup. Mann),

the man with whom we are acquainted, the acquaintance. Die Schöne, (sup. Frau, or Frauensperſon), the fair lady, the fair one; die Geliebte, or Liebſte, (sup. Frau, or Frauensperſon), the beloved woman; die Bekannte, (sup. Frau, or Frauensperſon), the female acquaintance; die Verwandte, (sup. Frauensperſon), the female relation. Das Große, (sup, Weſen, being), that which is great; das Schöne, (sup. Weſen), that which is beautiful; das Erhabene, that which is sublime; das Edle, that which is noble.—These substantives, in their mode of declension, remain liable to the three last forms of adjectives; namely, when no article is before them, they follow the second form: for example, in the plural, Gelehrte, gen. Gelehrter, dat. Gelehrten, acc. Gelehrte. When the definite article, or a pronoun demonstrative, &c. precedes, the third: as, sing. nom. der Bediente, the servant, gen. des Bedienten, dat. dem Bedienten, acc. den Bedienten. Plur. nom. die Bedienten, gen. der Bedienten, dat. den Bedienten, acc. die Bedienten. After the indefinite article, or a pronoun possessive, &c. the fourth form: as, sing. nom. mein Bekannter, my man acquaintance, gen. meines Bekannten, dat. meinem Bekannten, acc. meinen Bekannten. Thus in the feminine gender: sing. nom. meine Bekannte, my woman acquaintance, gen. meiner Bekannten, dat. meiner Bekannten, acc. meine Bekannte. Plur. nom. meine Bekannten, gen. meiner Bekannten, dat. meinen Bekannten, acc. meine Bekannten. In this manner all such words are to be inflected.* But

* Wieland (Agathon, vol. i. p. 69), says incorrectly, ſeine Bediente, for, ſeine Bedienten. Herder errs in the same manner, saying, ihrer Schöne, for Schönen. (Zerſtr. Blätter, vol. I, p. 122.)

2. Those which become substantives *abstractedly*, are differently treated. They represent the quality of the adjective abstracted, that means, as an object of itself, not as an adjunct to another: for instance, Das Blau, the quality of blue, the colour blue; das Roth, the colour red; das Weiß, the colour white; das Rund, the quality of round, rotundity, or a round substance. They arise out of the first form, the article in the neuter gender being prefixed; and are varied after the second, or fourth declension of substantives: as sing. nom. Das Blau, gen. des Blaus, dat. dem Blau, acc. das Blau; das Weiß, des Weißes, dem Weiß, das Weiß.

SECTION V.

THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

QUALITIES assigned to persons, or things, may exist in them, in a certain gradation; for which reason the adjectives, which are words, denoting qualities, are said to be capable of degrees of comparison.

The comparison, in grammar, is generally effected by two degrees, one of them, containing the idea *more*, and called the *Comparative;* and the other, expressing the notion *most*, and denominated the *Superlative*.

These degrees are in German, as in English, produced by the addition of certain letters, or syllables, to the adjectives; namely, the comparative by that of *r*, or *er*, and the superlative by that of *st*, or *est*.

This is analogous to the English language, and will be

easily understood by the reader. If, for instance, in English, the comparative degree of *bold* is to be formed, it will be done by adding *er* to it, *bolder;* and if the superlative is required, the addition of *est,* will answer that purpose, *boldest.* It would be the same in German.

THE COMPARATIVE DEGREE.

Rule. Take the adjective in its first form (see Declension of Adjectives), and add to it *er;* or *r* only, when it ends in *e:* you will then have the comparative degree of the first form. Examples: Schön, handsome—comparative, ſchöner, handsomer; enge, narrow—comparative, enger, narrower.

Observations.

1. The vowels a, o, u, are, in the comparative degree, changed into the diphthongs ä, ö, ü: as, Arm, poor, compar. ärmer, poorer; groß, great, compar. größer, greater; kurz, short, compar. kürzer, shorter; jung, young, compar. jünger, younger. Au remains unaltered, as rauh, compar. rauher. The following words are likewise exempt from the transmutation: *a*) Blaß, bunt, fahl, falſch, froh, gerade, geſchlank, glatt, hohl, kahl, karg, knapp, lahm, laß, (weary), los, (loose), loſe, (wanton, frolicksome,) matt, morſch, nackt, platt, plump, roh, rund, sacht, ſanft, ſatt, ſchlaff, ſchlank, ſtarr, ſtolz, ſtraff, ſtumpf, toll, voll. *b*) Those which end in *haft and sam:* as, Laſterhaft, tugendhaft, furchtſam. *c.*) The participles; and such as are shaped like participles, though they cannot be deduced from existing verbs. Of this description are: Abgeſchmackt, bejahrt, bekannt, betagt,

bewandert, bewandt, gewogen, verwegen, verbuhlt, verhaßt, verrucht, verſchlagen, verwandt, vollkommen, wohlhabend.

2. Adjectives, which end in *el*, cast away the *e* before *l*, in the comparative degree : as, Edel, noble, compar. edler, (for edeler), more noble; dunkel, dark, compar. dunkler, (for dunkeler), darker. A similar omission often takes place in those, ending in *en* and *er:* as, Trocken, dry, compar. trockner, (for trockener), more dry ; offen, open, compar. offner, (for offener), more open ; vollkommen, perfect, compar. vollkommner, (for vollkommener) ; bitter, bitter, compar. bittrer; tapfer, brave, compar. tapfrer. But in these, the elision of the *e* is not necessarily required, and need not be practised, except for some particular reason in composition.—Hoch does not make the comparative Höcher, but Höher.*

3. The comparative degree is subject to the four forms of adjectives. *a)* The first, or adverbial: as, Homer iſt ſchöner als Virgil, Homer is more beautiful than Virgil ; die Schweſter iſt älter als der Bruder, the sister is older than the brother ; das Kind iſt weiſer als der Vater, the child is more wise than the father. Die Römer waren mächtiger als die Griechen, the Romans were more powerful than the Grecians. In these examples, the comparative stands in the first form, as being neither preceded by an article, nor followed by a substantive. *b)* The second form, before a substantive, without an article or pronoun, antecedent. The terminations *er*, *e*, *es*, are added to the

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* Refer to p. 193, II.

first form: as, sing. nom. Schönerer, ſchönere, ſchöneres; größerer, größere, größeres; gen. größeres, größerer, größeres; dat. größerem, größerer, größerem; acc. größeren, größere, größeres. Plur. nom. größere, gen. größerer, dat. größeren, acc. größere. Examples: In Armuth zu ſterben iſt größerer Ruhm (größere Ehre—größeres Glück) als reich und laſterhaft zu leben, to die in poverty is greater glory (greater honour —greater happiness) than to live rich and vicious. Die Engländer ſind größere Leute als die Franzoſen, the English are taller people than the French. Here is the second form, because a substantive follows. *c)* The third form, with the definite article, or a pronoun demonstrative, or relative, preceding. In this manner: sing. nom. Der ſchönere, die ſchönere, das ſchönere; gen. des ſchöneren, der ſchöneren, des ſchöneren; dat. dem ſchöneren, der ſchöneren, dem ſchöneren; acc. den ſchöneren, die ſchönere, das ſchönere. Plur. nom. die ſchöneren, gen. der ſchöneren, dat. den ſchöneren, acc. die ſchöneren. Examples: Der größere Mann, the greater man; die größere Frau, the greater woman; das größere Kind, the greater child. Dieſer ſchönere Mann, dieſe ſchönere Frau, dieſes ſchönere Kind. *d)* The fourth form, with the indefinite article, or a personal, and possessive, pronoun, going before: sing. nom. Ein größerer, eine größere, ein größeres; gen. eines größeren, einer größeren, eines größeren; dat. einem größeren, einer größeren, einem größeren; acc. einen größerem, ein größere, eine größeres. For example: Es iſt ein größerer Verluſt, eines Freundes beraubt zu werden, als vieler Schätze, it is a greater loss to be deprived of a friend, than of many treasures. Thus in the other genders: Eine größere Demüthigung, a greater mortification, fem.—ein größeres Unglück, a greater misfortune, neuter.

4. In the Additional Remarks on the Adjectives,* an errour has been noticed, which consists in using the first or adverbial form, where a declinable form ought to be employed. The same inaccuracy is to be met with, in the comparative degree; for instance, Schöner Wetter, instead of ſchöneres Wetter, finer weather; ein größer Glück, for ein größeres Glück, a greater piece of luck; but here also it is confined to the neuter gender.

5. Of those adjectives, which are irregular in their comparison, and those, which do not admit the terminations of the comparative degree, an account will be given in the Additional Remarks.

THE SUPERLATIVE DEGREE.

Rule. Add *st*, or *est*, to the first form of adjectives; this raises them to the superlative degree: as, Schön, fine—superl. ſchönſt, finest; groß, great—superl. größeſt, greatest.

Observations.

1. The vowels a, o, u, are changed into the diphthongs ä, ö, ü, with the exceptions, adduced in the Comparative Degree, Obs. 1.

2. The adjectives in *e*, *b*, *ch*, *f*, *g*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *nd*, *r*, form the superlative in *st*: as, Geſchwinde, sup. geſchwindeſt; leiſe, sup. leiſeſt; grob, sup. gröbſt; herrlich, sup. herrlichſt; ſcharf, sup. ſchärfſt; arg, sup. ärgſt: jung, sup. jüngſt; ſchmal, sup. ſchmälſt; furchtſam, sup. furchtſamſt; ſchön, sup. ſchönſt; reizend, sup. reizendſt; heiter, sup. heiterſt.—Those which

* P. 196, VI.

end in *e*, divest themselves of this letter, after *b* and *g*: as, herbe, sup. herbſt; enge sup. engſt.

3. Those in *au*, *eu*, *ey*; and in *d*, *h*, *k*, *ck*, *ff*, *ll*, *mm*, *nn*, *rr*, *pf*, *s* or *ss*, *sch*, *st*, *t*, *z*, make the superlative degree in *est*. For example: Blau, sup. blaueſt; neu, sup. neueſt; frey, sup. freyeſt; wild, sup. wildeſt; roh, sup. roheſt; ſchlank, sup. ſchlankeſt; ſtark, sup. ſtärkeſt; dick, sup. dickeſt; ſchlaff, sup. ſchlaffeſt; toll, sup. tolleſt; dumm, sup. dummeſt; dünn, sup. dünneſt; dürr, sup. dürreſt; ſtumpf, sup. ſtumpfeſt; ſüß, sup. ſüßeſt; groß, sup. größeſt; morſch, sup. morſcheſt feſt, sup. feſteſt; hart, sup. härteſt; kurz, sup. kürzeſt. But in these also, the *e*, before *st*, is frequently thrown out: as, der dümmſte, der dünnſte, der ſtärkſte, der breitſte. In participles it must be removed: as, Der gebildetſte Menſch, the most civilized man.

4. When *ss* precedes the termination of the superlative, *est* is sometimes changed into *t*. This is done in the word groß, great; of which the superlative is expressed by größt, instead of größeſt; in the third form, der größte, the greatest, for größeſte. The same contraction may be observed in other adjectives, though not so commonly: as, in ſüß, sup. third form, der ſüßte, the sweetest, for ſüßeſte; blaß, sup. der blaßte, the palest, for blaſſeſte; but it is not to be commended. Der beſte, the best, which is now the established superlative of gut, good, (see Adelung's Orthogr. p. 289), is contracted from beſſeſte, beßte. The superlative of words ending in *isch* is supposed to be rendered less disagreeable to the ear, by substituting *t* for *est*: as of viehiſch, beastly, sup. third form, der viehiſchte, the most beastly, for der viehiſcheſte; of bäuriſch,

clownish, der bäuriſchte, for bäuriſcheſte; bübiſch, rascally, der bübiſchte. But even by such means, words of that description cannot be made tolerable; and it is best, if possible, to supersede them.

5. The superlative degree is, like the comparative, susceptible of the four forms of inflection; though most frequently used in the third, with the definite article: as, Der ſchönſte, the handsomest; der neueſte, the newest: gen. des ſchönſten, des neueſten; dat. dem ſchönſten, dem neueſten, &c. See the declension of adjectives. Next to the third, the first, or adverbial, form is often employed; or to speak more properly, a substitute for that form. This consists in the dative case singular, of the third form, with the word am prefixed: as, Am ſchönſten, am neueſten. The following phrases, *it is finest*, *it is newest*, would be expressed by, es iſt am ſchönſten, am neueſten. This circumlocution is to be thus explained. Am, is put for, an dem; an being a preposition, which denotes *on*, *nearest*, or *next*, *to*: and dem, the dative of the definite article: consequently, am ſchönſten literally signifies next to that which is finest; and afterwards simply marks the superlative degree, in its first form, without any collateral meaning. It will be useful to subjoin a few examples: Dieſes Frauenzimmer iſt am ſchönſten, wenn ſie ſich nicht ſchminkt, this lady is handsomest, or most handsome, when she does not paint herself. Jener Redner iſt immer am größten, wenn er ſich an die Leidenſchaften wendet, that orator is always greatest, when he addresses the passions. Es wird am beſten ſeyn, heute zu Hauſe zu bleiben, it will be best to stay at home to-day. Derjenige Mann iſt am weiſeſten welcher ein ru-

higes Leben führt, that man is wisest, or the most wise, who leads a quiet life. Diejenige Frau iſt am klügſten, welche ihren Haushalt gut beſorgt, that woman is most prudent, who takes good care of her domestick concerns. Dasjenige Kind iſt am liebenswürdigſten, welches folgſam iſt, that child is most amiable, which is tractable and obedient. Diejenigen Leute ſind am vernünftigſten, welche Vorurtheilen am wenigſten unterworfen ſind, those people are most reasonable, who are least subject to prejudices. The same ideas might have been answered by the third form. Instead of, *it will be best to stay at home*, the turn might have been, *it will be the best thing to stay at home*: Es wird das beſte ſeyn, &c. For, *that woman is most prudent, who*, &c. you might say, *that woman is the most prudent, who*, &c. Diejenige Frau iſt die klügſte, welche, &c.—The prepositions auf, upon, and zu, to, are, for a similar purpose, connected with the superlative degree. They are then, like *an*, contracted with the article: auf das, into aufs; zu dem, into zum. But their signification is not so extensive, as that of an. They only describe the manner, in which a thing is done, or exists: for example, Aufs ſchönſte eingerichtet, arranged in the finest manner; aufs vollkommenſte ausgeführt, executed in the most perfect manner. Auf governs the accusative, and the adjective, therefore, ends in *e*, which is the termination of the neuter of that case, in the third form. Zu is joined with the dative: as, Zum ſchönſten, in the finest manner; zum vollkommenſten, in the most perfect manner. The use of the two prepositions last mentioned, especially of zu, is not so current, nor so classical, as that of the former.—The first, or adverbial, form of the superlative degree, in its original state,

perhaps only appears in the word allerliebſt, most lovely of all: as, Das iſt allerliebſt, that is most lovely. But even here, it is not quite pure; the word aller, disguises it nearly as much as am, aufs, or zum. Liebſt, by itself, for ex. Das iſt liebſt, never occurs. If it be remarked, that the following, äußerſt, höchſt, jüngſt, längſt, meiſt, gehorſamſt, gnädigſt, freundlichſt, verbindlichſt, verbundenſt, and others, are superlatives of the first form; it must be considered, that they are mere adverbs, when thus used, and have not the nature of adjectives. They will be mentioned in their proper place.—The second form of the superlative is chiefly to be seen in the vocative case, which is like the nominative: as, sing. Liebſter Bruder, dearest brother; theurſte Schweſter, dearest sister; ſchönſtes Kind, most charming child; plur. würdigſte Freunde, most worthy friends.—In the fourth form the superlative is to be found, after the personal and possessive pronouns*; as, Ich ärmſter Menſch, I poorest man; du theurſter Bruder, thou dearest brother; du liebſte Schweſter, thou dearest sister; ihr ſchönſten Kinder, ye most charming children; mein liebſter Bruder, my dearest brother; deine liebſte Schweſter, thy dearest sister; and so with the rest.

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* After the indefinite article it is hardly ever used. In other languages, for instance, in the Italian, and even in the Dutch, it occurs in combination with that article: nor is it uncommon to meet, in English, with phrases like these, 'a most severe winter, a most cruel disappointment.' In German some adverb, such as ſehr, very, äußerſt, extremely, höchſt, highly, would be employed.

VI. The word aller, which means 'of all,' being the genitive plural of all, all, is sometimes prefixed to the superlative degree to increase its force: as, Der allerbeſte Mann, the very best man; die allerſchönſte Frau, the most beautiful woman of all.

Additional Remarks on the Comparison of Adjectives.

1. Some adjectives do not admit the degrees of comparison, by means of additional terminations. They are: Angſt, bereit, eingedenk, feind, gar, gram, recht, unrecht, theilhaft. Others refuse it partly. Of this kind are the participles; and adjectives ending in haft, ich, iſch: which only suffer the comparative degree in the first form. It may be permitted to say, gehärteter, gegründeter, in the first form, more hardened, more grounded, from the participles gehärtet, gegründet; but the ear would be offended at the sound of the following forms: gehärteterer, gehärtetere, gehärteteres; der gehärtetere; ein gegründeterer, eine gegründetere, ein gegründeteres. Thus in the adjectives, lebhaft, gewiſſenhaft, lächerlich, veränderlich, bäuriſch, verſchwenderiſch, and others, it is allowable to make use of the first form: lebhafter, gewiſſenhafter, lächerlicher, verſchwenderiſcher, bäuriſcher; but the subsequent forms, ein lebhafterer, der lächerlichere, &c. could not be endured. The superlative degree is not liable to the same objection. It is not inconsistent with good language, to say, der lebhafteſte, der lächerlichſte, and even der gegründetſte, der gehärtetſte: though the adjectives in *isch*, which are, of themselves, disharmonious, produce a sound still more unpleasant, when augmented by the hissing termination of the superlative: as, der bäueriſcheſte.

II. When the degrees of comparison are not expressed by the termination, certain adverbs are made use of, to convey the notion: namely, mehr, more, for the comparative; and am meiſten, most, for the superlative. For example: Feind, inimical; mehr feind, more inimical; am meiſten feind, most hostile; theilhaft, partaking; mehr theilhaft, am meiſten theilhaft. Those adverbs are sometimes put to adjectives, which are capable of the comparative terminations, when, by this expedient, any harshness, or abruptness of sound may be obviated. Thus in wahr, true, comp. wahrer, sup. wahreſt; where mehr wahr, am meiſten wahr, may be used: as, Dieſes iſt noch mehr wahr als jenes, this is still more true than that.—After the deduction of the few words which have been mentioned, all the existing adjectives form their degrees of comparison by means of the terminations; for which the adverbs mehr, am meiſten, cannot be arbitrarily substituted. However, when two different adjectives are to be compared with one another, it must be done by mehr: as, Er iſt mehr luſtig als traurig, he is more merry than sad; Auguſtus war mehr glücklich als tapfer, Augustus was more successful than brave. This comparison could not be effected by the termination of either adjective.

III. The following words are irregular, in their comparison: Gut, good, comp. beſſer, sup. am beſten; viel, much, comp. mehr, sup. am mehrſten, or am meiſten.—The comparative degree, mehr, when put in a declinable form, generally receives, besides the usual terminations, the syllable *re* before them. The second form of mehr, should be, mehrer, mehre, mehres, plur. mehre;

but it is commonly expressed by, mehrerer, mehrere, mehreres, plur. mehrere; ein mehreres, for ein mehres. This seems to have arisen from a misconception of the declinable ending*; and might be laid aside, without impropriety. Of the superlatives, mehr and meiſt, the first may be preferred, as more regular, but the last is more common.—The comparative and superlative degrees of the adverb bald, which are eher, am eheſten, appear sometimes in the situation of adjectives.—hoch, high, makes the comparative höher, exchanging the guttural, in the middle, for the simple aspirate; but the superlative, am höchſten. On the other hand, nahe, near, has in the comparative näher, and in the superlative am nächſten, assuming, in the latter, the guttural instead of the mere *h*. These, however, can hardly be called irregular comparisons.

IV. Some adjectives have the appearance of the comparative degree, though their signification does not correspond with it. They are: Der mittlere, the middle one; der äußere, the exterior; der innere, the interior; der obere, the superior; der untere, the inferior; der vordere, the anterior; der hintere, the posterior. They all take

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* As most adjectives of the comparative degree, in the second form, terminate in *erer, ere, eres*, it was erroneously imagined, that mehr ought to do the same. It was forgotten, that this word (probably contracted from meher), was already a comparative, and therefore only entitled o the additional endings *er, e, es*.

the superlative: as, Der mittelſte, der äußerſte, der innerſte, &c.

V. The comparative, and superlative degree may be used substantively, some other word being understood: as, Der Höchſte, (understood Gott) the supreme being; mein Beſter, (understood, Mann, or Freund), my good man, my good friend.

SECTION VI.

THE NUMERALS.

They are divided into *Cardinal* and *Ordinal Numbers*.

A. CARDINAL NUMBERS.

1. Ein, eine, ein, or einer, eine, eines.	14. Vierzehn.
2. Zwey.	15. Funfzehn.
3. Drey.	16. Sechzehn.
4. Vier.	17. Siebenzehn, or ſiebzehn.
5. Fünf.	18. Achtzehn.
6. Sechs.	19. Neunzehn.
7. Sieben.	20. Zwanzig.
8. Acht.	21. Ein und Zwanzig.
9. Neun.	22. Zwey und zwanzig.
10. Zehen, or Zehn.	23. Drey und zwanzig.
11. Elf, or eilf.	24. Vier und zwanzig.
12. Zwölf.	25. Fünf und zwanzig.
13. Dreyzehen, or dreyzehn.	26. Sechs und zwanzig.
	27. Sieben und zwanzig.

28. Acht und zwanzig.
29. Neun und zwanzig.
30. Dreiſſig.
31. Ein und dreiſſig.
32. Zwey und dreiſſig, &c.
40. Vierzig.
41. Ein und vierzig, &c.
50. Funfzig.
60. Sechzig.
70. Siebenzig, or ſiebzig.
80. Achtzig.
90. Neunzig.
100. Hundert.
101. Hundert und ein.
102. Hundert und zwey, &c.
200. Zwey hundert.
300. Drey hundert.
1000. Tauſend.
10000. Zehn Tauſend.
100000. Hundert tauſend.
A million. Eine Million.

1799.

Ein tauſend ſieben hundert und neun und neunzig.

1800.

Achtzehn hundert, or Tauſend (ein tauſend) acht hundert.

1816.

Achtzehn hundert und ſechzehn.

Observations.

I. Ein, eine, ein, one, is declined like the indefinite article. It is, in fact, the same word, used with a different power. As a numeral, it is pronounced with a stronger accent: as, Ein Mann, eine Frau. When it stands by itself, but with a reference to a substantive, somewhere expressed, the termination *er* is added, in the nominative singular, for the masculine; and *es*, for the neuter gender, in the nominative and accusative. For example: Haben Sie einen Hut? have you got a hat? hier iſt einer, here is *one*: Hut, hat, which is understood

by reference, is of the masculine gender; and therefore it is einer. Haben Sie ein Meſſer? have you got a knife? hier iſt eines, here is *one*: namely, Meſſer, which being of the neuter gender, the numeral becomes eines. Einer der Vorwürfe, welche man dem Verfaſſer macht, *one* of the objections, which are made to the author, &c. The negative adjective, Kein, keine, kein, no one, none, is treated in the same manner: for example, Kein Fürſt, no prince; keiner von ſeinen Nachfolgern, no one of his successors.—Those additional syllables can, in such a connexion, never be dispensed with, though from carelessness, or ignorance, they are sometimes neglected*. When the numeral has no reference to a substantive expressed, but serves merely to count, they are not absolutely required: yet in simply telling the numbers, as *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, &c. it is usual to give to Ein the additional termination of the neuter, but generally contracted, Eins, zwey, drey, vier, &c.—Ein, eine, ein, may have the definite article before it; then it is declined in the third form of adjectives, viz.

Singular.

Nom.	Der eine,	die eine,	das eine, the one.
Gen.	Des einen,	der einen,	des einen, of
Dat.	Dem einen,	der einen,	dem einen, to
Acc.	Den einen,	die eine,	das eine, the one.

* Something similar appertains to the possessive pronouns, as will be seen in the subsequent pages.

The plural may be used for the purpose of distinguishing certain classes of individual objects: as, *the ones, and the others;* that means, the one set, and the other. Nom. Die einen, the ones; gen. der einen; dat. den einen; acc. die einen. Pronouns are also prefixed: as, my *one*, this *one*, which *one*. Then, Ein, is considered as an adjective, and put in that form of declension, which is required by each respective pronoun.

The German numeral never serves in a suppletive capacity, as the English *one*, in *a good one, this one, that one*. Here the *number* is not meant, but *one* fills the place of the substantive, which is understood, since those words *a good, this, that*, in English, cannot well stand absolute, without something following. This peculiarity is unknown to the German language; but the adjectives, as well as the pronouns, are placed by themselves, without any such support.

2. Zwey, and drey, now and then indicate their genitive and dative, by additional terminations: gen. Zweyer, dreyer; dat. zweyen, dreyen. This is necessary, when those cases are not otherwise distinguished: as, Die Stärke zweyer Männer, the strength of two men; die Macht dreyer Könige, the power of three kings. In these examples, the genitive case could not be recognized, except by the endings of the numerals; but if the article, an adjective, or a pronoun were present, by whose endings the genitive might be known, it would be improper to vary the termination of the numerals: s, Die Stärke der zwey Männer, the strength of the two men; die Macht dieser drey Könige, the power of these three kings; die Treue

zwey aufrichtiger Freunde, the faith of two sincere friends. Here the genitive case is determined by the article, the pronoun, and the adjective; the numerals, therefore, need not be inflected. The declinable ending of the dative is not required, before substantives: for that case is always sufficiently expressed by the latter. But when the numeral is not followed by a substantive, the termination should be added, as a sign of the dative: for instance, Ich habe es zweyen gegeben, I have given it to two; ich habe es dreyen mitgetheilt, I have communicated it to three. Likewise after prepositions, mit zweyen, with two: von dreyen, from three. The other numerals all admit the termination of the dative, in the same circumstances: as, Ich habe es vieren gegeben, I have given it to four; ich habe es fünfen gesagt, I have told it to five; ich habe es zwanzigen mitgetheilt, I have communicated it to twenty, &c. And with prepositions: for example, Auf allen vieren, upon all fours; mit sechsen, with six; von achten, of eight, &c. Those which end in *en*, do not receive the additional termination; as, sieben, zehen, dreyzehen, &c. The termination of the genitive is only peculiar to zwey, and drey; and cannot be assumed by any of the rest. Its office must be supplied by a preposition, such as von, or some other mode of expression, when the case is not of itself discernible.—In hundert, and tausend, the dative is not to be signified by the addition of *en*, hunderten, tausenden: for this would make the number plural, and denote hundreds, and thousands. Recourse may, upon this occasion, perhaps, be had to the indefinite article, as in English: for instance, Ich habe es einem hundert gegeben, I have given it to *a* hundred; ich habe es einem tausend mit-

getheilt, I have communicated it to *a* thousand; though, after all, this would not be so proper, nor so truly German, as to add some substantive, for the sake of distinguishing the case: as, Ich habe es hundert Leuten gesagt, I have told it to a hundred people; ich habe es tausend Leuten gegeben, I have given it to a thousand people.—In compound numbers, the termination *en* is not added: as, Vor tausend sieben hundert und neun und neunzig, before the year 1799.

3. It is a property of the language of Upper Germany, to assign three genders to the second numeral, namely zween (or zweene), for the masculine; zwo, for the feminine; and zwey, for the neuter. But in High German, no distinction of gender is admitted, in the cardinal numbers, except in *One*.—Beide signifies *both*, but with the article, die beiden, it is very frequently put for die zwey. *the two*.*

4. In speaking substantively of the cardinal numbers, for instance, as the figures in cards, they are made to be of the feminine gender, the word die Zahl, the number, being, probably, understood: eine Ein or Eins, a one; eine Zwey, a two, a figure two: eine Drey, eine Vier; and they end, in the plural, in *en*, according to the first declension of substantives: as, zwey Einen, two ones; zwey Vieren, two fours, two figures of four; drey Sechsen, three sixes; vier Neunen, four nines; alle Achten, all the eights.

5. Hundert and Tausend, are used as substantives, with

* See Ex., p. 219, n. 6. p. 224, n. 10, p. 231, n. 2.

the neuter article: as, Das Hundert, the hundred; das Tauſend, the thousand.—In English, the numbers *Hundred*, and *Thousand*, when placed before any substantive, have, generally, the indefinite article prefixed: as, *a hundred pounds*, *a thousand dollars*. In German, that article is not admitted: but you say, hundert Pfund, tauſend Thaler.

6. The reader will, of his own accord, have taken notice of the mode of forming the decimal numbers, so that it will not be necessary to detain him by any farther remarks.

B. ORDINAL NUMBERS.

These are declined like adjectives, and may be put in the four forms. The most usual manner of representing them, is in the third, with the definite article.

The first. Der erſte.	The 13th. Der dreyzehnte.
2d. Der zweyte.	14th. Der vierzehnte.
3d. Der dritte.	15th. Der funfzehnte.
4th. Der vierte.	16th. Der ſechzehnte.
5th. Der fünfte.	17th. Der ſiebenzehnte, or ſiebzehnte.
6th. Der ſechſte.	18th. Der achtzehnte.
7th. Der ſiebente, or ſiebte.	19th. Der neunzehnte.
8th. Der achte.	20th. Der zwanzigſte.
9th. Der neunte.	21st. Der ein und zwanzigſte.
10th. Der zehnte.	22d. Der zwey und zwanzigſte.
11th. Der elfte, or eilfte.	
12th. Der zwölfte.	

The 23d. Der drey und zwanzigſte.
24th. Der vier und zwanzigſte.
25th. Der fünf und zwanzigſte.
26th. Der ſechs und zwanzigſte.
27th. Der ſieben und zwanzigſte.
28th. Der acht und zwanzigſte.
29th. Der neun und zwanzigſte.
30th. Der dreiſſigſte.
31st. Der ein und dreiſſigſte.
32d. Der zwey und dreiſſigſte, &c.
40th. Der vierzigſte.
41st. Der ein und vierzigſte, &c.
The 50th. Der funfzigſte.
60th. Der ſechzigſte.
70th. Der ſiebenzigſte, or ſiebzigſte.
80th. Der achtzigſte.
90th. Der neunzigſte.
100th. Der hundertſte.
101st. Der hundert und erſte.
102d. Der hundert und zweyte.
103d. Der hundert und dritte, &c.
200th. Der zwey hundertſte.
300th. Der drey hundertſte.
1000th. Der tauſendſte.
The one thousand seven hundred and ninety-ninth. Der tauſend ſieben hundert und neun und neunzigſte.

Observations.

1. In the formation of the ordinals, the first and third numbers are irregular; but the rest follow a certain rule: viz. the termination *te* is added to the cardinals, from two to nineteen, inclusive; and *ste*, from twenty to the last.

2. The ordinals may be brought under all the forms

of adjectives. The first, or adverbial, however, is not usual. For these numbers resemble the superlative degree, in their nature, and, strictly-speaking, do not allow that form. But a substitute for it may be employed, as in the superlative degree,* by means of the preposition An: as, Am erſten, first; am dritten, third: or the idea may be expressed by the third form, as, *he is the second, the third*, instead of, *he is second, third.* The second form would be: Erſter, erſte, erſtes; zweyter, zweyte, zweytes. Gen. erſtes, erſter, erſtes; zweytes, zweyter, zweytes, &c. Examples: Erſter Abſchnitt, zweyte Seite, drittes Capitel, first section, second page, third chapter. Fourth form: Ein zweyter, eine zweyte, ein zweytes; ein dritter, eine dritte, ein drittes. Gen. eines zweyten, einer zweyten, eines zweyten, &c. In the same manner, after personal and possessive pronouns: as, Ich dritter Officier, I third officer; mein vierter Irrthum, my fourth errour; unſer fünftes Glas, our fifth glass; ihre ſechſte Bouteille, their sixth bottle. The third form, of course, follows after demonstrative, relative, and interrogative pronouns.

3. In compound numbers, the last only assumes the shape of an ordinal; the foregoing remain cardinals: as, Der ſechs und neunzigſte, the ninety-sixth; der tauſend ſieben hundert und ſechs und achtzigſte, the one thousand seven hundred and eighty-sixth.

4. Der andere is used as synonymous with der zweyte. The adjective Ander, corresponds both to the Latin *alius*,

* See p. 205.

other, and to *alter;* and in the latter sense, it serves for the second ordinal number.

Additional Remarks on the Numerals.

Besides the two divisions, into cardinals and ordinals, the numbers suffer a variety of modifications, which it will be proper to notice, at the conclusion of this section.

I. *Partitive* numerals, which are in Latin expressed by *bini, terni, quaterni, quini, deni,* &c. and in English by, *two and two, three and three,* or, *two at a time, three at a time, four at a time,* &c. or, *every two, every three, every four, every five,* &c. The Germans, like the English, avail themselves, for this purpose, of the conjunction und, and: as, Zwey und zwey, drey und drey; or they say, Je zwey, je drey, je vier, je zehen, je zwanzig, je dreißig, je vierzig, je funfzig, &c. Je is an adverb signifying *ever,* and here denotes *at a time.*

II. *Distinctives.* These are, in English, *firstly, secondly, thirdly, fourthly, fifthly;* or, *in the first place, in the second place, in the third place.* In German: Erſtlich, or erſtens; zweytens, drittens, viertens, fünftens, ſechſtens, ſiebentens, or ſiebtens; achtens, neuntens, zehntens, elftens, zwölftens, dreyzehntens, zwanzigſtens, &c. Also thus: Zum erſten, zum zweyten, (or zum andern), zum dritten, zumvierten, zum fünften, &c. Those in *ens* are the genitive cases of the ordinals; third form; *s,* at the end, being added, instead of the article, Des erſten, des zweyten, des dritten, &c. And some substantive may be understood, after it: as, Des erſten Ortes, or erſten Ortes; zwey-

ten Ortes, &c. in the first place, &c. The genitive case is occasionally found, in German, where a preposition ought to be supplied. The other mode is with the dative, and the preposition zu before it: zum, for zu dem. Here likewise, a substantive may be inserted.

III. *Dimidiatives*, or numbers that halve. They are composed of the ordinals, and the word halb, half. Their signification is extraordinary: for example, Drittehalb, literally, the third (number) half, of der dritte, and halb, means *two and a half*, two whole ones, and the third half; viertehalb, of der vierte and halb, *three and a half*, or three whole ones, and the fourth half.* It is not usual to say zweytehalb, but anderthalb, which is *one and a half*, or one whole, and the second half. Therefore, the way of proceeding with these numerals, is this: Anderthalb $1\frac{1}{2}$. drittehalb $2\frac{1}{2}$, viertehalb $3\frac{1}{2}$, fünftehalb, $4\frac{1}{2}$, sechstehalb, $5\frac{1}{2}$, siebentehalb, or siebtehalb $6\frac{1}{2}$, achtehalb $7\frac{1}{2}$, neuntehalb $8\frac{1}{2}$, zehntehalb $9\frac{1}{2}$, elftehalb, or eilftehalb $10\frac{1}{2}$, zwölftehalb $11\frac{1}{2}$, dreyzehntehalb $12\frac{1}{2}$, zwanzigstehalb $19\frac{1}{2}$, ein und zwanzigstehalb $20\frac{1}{2}$, &c. For example: Anderthalb Monathe, one month and a half; drittehalb Wochen, two weeks and a half: viertehalb Jahre, three years and a half; sechstehalb Guineen, five guineas and a half. They are not declined, though they may, perhaps, sometimes admit the termination *en*, in the dative, when they are put absolutely. In anderthalb, which comes from der andere, the *e*, in the middle, is supplanted by a *t*, of which the reasons seems to be,

* Something analogous to this exists in the Greek language.

that it may be assimilated to the other numbers, which all contain a *t*.

IV. *Variatives*, which denote a variety, according to number. They are made by adding *erley* to the cardinals: as, Zweyerley, of two kinds; dreyerley, of three kinds; viererley, of four kinds; fünferley, of five kinds; ſechſerley, of six kinds; ſiebenerley, of seven kinds; zwanzigerley, of twenty kinds, &c. For example: Dreyerley Wein, wine of three different sorts; zweyerley-Münze, coin of two different sorts; ſechſerley Bänder, ribbons of six different kinds. In the same manner are used: allerley, of all kinds; einerley, of the same kind; mancherley, of several kinds; vielerley, of many kinds.—The variatives are not declined.

V. Certain adjectives are formed out of numerals: for example, Einfach, simple, uncompounded; zweyfach, twofold; dreyfach, threefold; vierfach, fünffach, ſechsfach, zehnfach, &c. Of nearly the same signification are those ending in *fältig*: as, Zweyfältig, dreyfältig, vierfältig, &c.—but einfältig, denotes simple, artless, silly. Similar compositions arise from the cardinal numbers, and substantives: as, Zweypfündig, of two pounds; dreypfündig, of three pounds; vier und zwanzigpfündig, of twenty-four pounds—from zwey, drey, vier und zwanzig, and das Pfund, the pound. Dreyeckig, of three corners, or angles, threecornered, triangular; viereckig, of four angles, square; fünfeckig, of five corners—from drey, vier, fünf, and die Ecke, the corner. These, and others of the like description, are inflected, according to the four forms of adjectives.

VI. The fractional numbers, with the exception of

halb, half, are derived from the ordinals, by the addition of *l* to the nominative of the third form. For example: from der dritte, the third, Ein Drittel, a third part, or one third; from der vierte, ein Viertel, a fourth part, a quarter. In the same manner, ein Fünftel, $\frac{1}{5}$th; ein Sechstel, $\frac{1}{6}$th; ein Siebentel, or Siebtel, $\frac{1}{7}$th; ein Zehntel, $\frac{1}{10}$th; ein Zwanzigstel, $\frac{1}{20}$th; &c. So in the plural: Zwey Drittel, $\frac{2}{3}$ds; drey Viertel, $\frac{3}{4}$ths; fünf Sechstel, $\frac{5}{6}$ths; sieben Zehntel, $\frac{7}{10}$ths, &c. They are regarded as substantives, and of the neuter gender. The letter *l*, which is added, is a corruption of the word das Theil, the part; and it should properly be das dritte Theil, the third part; das vierte Theil, the fourth part. This was contracted into one word. Drittheil, Viertheil; and at last into, Drittel, Viertel.—Halb, half, is an adjective; and from it die Hälfte, (a substantive), the half of a thing, is deduced.

CHAPTER III.

ON THE PRONOUN.

Containing :

1. *The Personal and Reciprocal Pronouns.*
2. *The Possessive.*
3. *The Demonstrative.*
4. *The Relative and Interrogative.*
5. *Miscellaneous Pronouns.*

SECTION I.

OF THE PRONOUNS PERSONAL ; AND RECIPROCAL.

First Personal, Ich, I—plural, Wir, we.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. Ich, I.	Nom. Wir, we,
Gen. Meiner, or mein, of me	Gen. Unſer, of us.
Dat. Mir, to me.	Dat. Uns, to us.
Acc. Mich, me.	Acc. Uns, us.

Second Personal, Du, thou—plural, Ihr you.

Singular.	*Plural.*
Nom. Du, thou.	Nom. Ihr, you.
Gen. Deiner, or dein, of thee,	Gen. Euer, of you.
Dat. Dir, to thee.	Dat. Euch, to you.
Acc. Dich, thee.	Acc. Euch, you.

Third Personal, Er, masculine, he; Sie, feminine, she: Es, neuter, it—plural, Sie, they, for all genders.

Singular.

Nom.	Er, he;	Sie, she;	Es,
Gen.	Seiner, or ſein, of him;	Ihrer, or ihr, of her;	Seiner, or ſein, of it.
Dat.	Ihm, to him;	Ihr, to her;	Ihm, to it.
Acc.	Ihn, him;	Sie, her;	Es, it.

Plural.

Nom. Sie, they, (for all genders).
Gen. Ihrer, of them.
Dat. Ihnen, to them.
Acc. Sie, them.

Reciprocal for the third person.

Singular.

Nom. None.
Gen. Seiner, or ſein, of himself; Ihrer, or ihr, of herself; Seiner, or ſein, of itself.
Dat. Sich, to himself, to herself, to itself.
Acc. Sich, himself, herself, itself.

Plural.

Nom. None.
Gen. Ihrer, of themselves.
Dat. Sich, to themselves.
Acc. Sich, themselves.

Observations.

1. The genitive case of these pronouns, in both numbers, is limited in its use. It occurs after certain verbs:

for example, Er lachet meiner, he laughs at me; er ſpottet ihrer, he mocks them: ich ſchäme mich deiner, I am ashamed of thee; erbarme dich meiner, have mercy upon me. The genitive of the plural is put after numerals, and after the words viel and wenig:* for example, Unſer zwölf, twelve of us; ihrer zwanzig, twenty of them; unſer wenig, few of us; ihrer viel, many of them. The expression Unſer einer, which signifies, a person like ourselves, one of our condition, one like us, or one like me, belongs to the same construction. In the Lord's prayer, the genitive unſer is, according to the earliest translation, governed by a substantive, Vater: viz. Vater unſer, Father of us, instead of Unſer Vater, our Father; which is a close imitation of the Greek, πάτερ ἡμῶν— The genitive is likewise joined with some prepositions, viz. wegen, halben, willen, denoting *on account of.* Then it generally coalesces with them into one word, by means of connecting letters: as, Meinetwegen, on my account; ſeinetwegen, on his account; ihretwegen, on her account; unſertwegen, or unſerntwegen, on our account; euretwegen, or euerentwegen, on your account; ihretwegen, or ihrentwegen, on their account. Thus, meinethalben, deinethalben, meinetwillen, or um meinetwillen, &c. Otherwise, the preposition von, with the dative, is employed to signify the case *of:* as, Von mir, of me; von uns, of us; von dir, of thee; voneuch, of you; von ihm, of him; von ihr, of her; von ihnen, of them.

2. In addressing one another in conversation, or in

* See Additional Remarks on the Adjective p. 195.

writing, the Germans do not confine themselves to the second personal pronoun; but, like the Italians, Spaniards, and Portuguese, they have adopted the third. Besides this, they apply the plural number to a single person. If it be an anomaly to speak to *one*, as if he were more than one, which is done in English, by saying *you*, instead of *thou*: it is still more strange to address him, as if he were not the person spoken to, which is the case in the use of the third personal. How can it, for instance, be supposed, that in this question, *What is he doing?* the person is meant, of whom that question is asked, and that it stands for, *What art thou doing?* And if it be but one person, it appears absurd to assign to him the pronoun, in the plural number: as, *What are they doing?* This, however, is the fact, in the German language. The Italians, Spaniards, and Portuguese have another monstrosity, in their polite manner of speaking, namely, that of bestowing on the person whom they address, although it be a man, a feminine pronoun. That perverseness has sprung from the corruption of the middle ages. At that tasteless period, new terms were introduced into the Latin tongue, in the form of titles and appellations, such as *Majestas*, *Celsitas*, *Serenitas*, *Excellentia*, *Gratia*, and the like; and these figures of adulation were, with various modification, received into the modern languages of Europe. The Spaniards produced their *Merced* (in *Vuessa Merced*, or *Usted*, your Mercy, your Grace); and the Italians their *Signoria* (in *Vossignoria*, your Lordship, your Ladyship). Those words were first intended as abstracted representations of the virtues, and qualities

of the person, to whom they were given: but, gradually, the person was confounded with his attribute; and this was addressed instead of the person. It was accompanied by the possessive pronouns of the persons, as *your eminence*, *his grace*, *their excellencies*, *her highness*, in the same manner as any common appellative, for example, *your father*, *your mother*. In saying, *his eminence has written*, the analysis of the idea is this: He, that eminent man, or he, who is an eminent man, has written. For, *your highness has conferred a favour upon me*, the fundamental notion is: Thou, who art, or whom I respect as, an illustrious person, hast conferred upon me a favour.—The third person of the verb occupied the place of the second. Having arrived at this, some nations went a step farther. The third person, they took for granted, was a mark of respect; and they observed, that those appellatives, with which it was connected, were of the feminine gender, as *celsitas*, *serenitas*, *excellentia*, &c. Therefore, when they had occasion to use a pronoun, they assumed the third personal of the feminine gender. Thus the mystery of the usual mode of address, in the Italian, and other languages, is cleared up. The French and English did not go that length. For though they received such titles, as your majesty, your highness, your lordship, in the third person; yet, when a pronoun was wanted, they turned back to the second: as, I told your majesty, and *you* were pleased to direct, &c.; when I waited on your grace, *you* desired, &c.; in which instances, the Italians would say, *she* (Lat. *ea*, namely, *majestas*, *gratia*) was pleased, *she* desired.—As in the Italian, Spanish, and

Portuguese tongues, the expression *Vossignoria*, and *Usted*, were, by degrees, applied indifferently, for the sole purpose of civility; the third of the feminine gender became a general form of politeness.—This notion, concerning the third person, was admitted by the Germans. But they overlooked its origin, and no longer associated with it those substantives, to which it owed its existence. They deemed the third person of itself sufficient; and therefore appropriated the masculine pronoun, Er, he, to a man; and Sie, she, to a woman. Not contented with this, they introduced another innovation. With the third person they combined the plural number, which had previously been adopted in the second person, as a refinement in speaking: *you*, for *thou*. In the same way, Sie, they, was substituted for Er, he, or Sie, she. At length, the following practice has been established. The plural of the third personal, Sie, is the polite mode of address, made use of by, and to, people of education. For example, instead of *How do you do?* the Germans, in their language, will say, *How do they do?* It will be remarked, that this may sometimes be mistaken for a real third person; and confusion may hence arise. However, the context, in most places, will show who is meant: and where that is insufficient, a gesture, or some other means of explanation, may make the person understood. In writing, misconceptions of that kind must be obviated by clearness of expression: besides which, the pronoun of address is commonly begun with a capital, whereas the mere third personal has only a small letter for its initial, unless it be at the beginning of a sentence.—Notwithstanding this new manner of speaking,

the former ones, *thou, you, he, she,* are still in use, but assigned with a particular discrimination; respecting which a few words must be added, since it is become necessary, for the present language, to distinguish them properly. The singular of the second person, Du, thou, is first of all applied to the Supreme Being: because upon him we poor mortals can bestow none of those vain, and worthless titles, with which we decorate our fellow creatures. In the next place, it implies familiarity, founded upon affection, and fondness. This is the pleasing appellation, by which parents speak to their children, and brothers, and sisters, to one another. It is the language of love, and conjugal union. With friends, it is a token of intimacy, and confidence: and though it is as much abused, as the name of friend itself, yet it is often found to denote the close harmony of congenial souls.* Children are sometimes allowed to speak to their parents in the same manner;† though, in general, the

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* See a charming passage in Schiller's Don Carlos, at the end of the first act—I mean, in the original; for the translations give but a faint, and imperfect idea. It begins thus:

Und jetzt noch eine Bitte, Lieber—Nenne
Mich Du—u. s. w.

"And now one more request, my dearest friend—Do call me *thou*, &c.

† I found, in my last visit to Germany, since writing the above, that this practice of speaking, between children and parents, had very much gained ground, and

third person plural, Sie, is preferred, as more respectful. Lastly, Du, is the reverse of ceremonious politeness, and thus it is applied, where particular distinctions are laid aside. Therefore, it is commonly made use of, in speaking to little children: and to people in very subordinate situations; for example, by the officer to his soldiers. It is often heard in quarrels, and opprobious language, when the considerations of decorum, and propriety, are disregarded. All these significations may be reduced to the notion of familiarity, differently modified.*—The plural Ihr, *you*, when referred to one person, generally involves the idea of that familiarity, which is used towards inferiors; for instance, by a master towards his menials: it is likewise bestowed upon individuals of low condition.—Since the plural of the third personal was adopted, as the polite mode of address, the singular has been reserved for the lower stations of life: namely, Er, he, for a male; and Sie, she, for a female.

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was, in some parts, almost becoming general. I am among those, who do not approve it. For though love, affection, and confidence should exist between children and parents, yet this particular relation seems to me to require a mixture of veneration and respect, on the part of the children, (according to the precept, *Honour thy father and thy mother*), and not to be improved by familiarity.

* There is a particular verb, which expresses the use of the second personal, viz. duzen, answering to the French *tutoyer;* in English, *to thou*, according to Shakspeare.

In this manner, the master and mistress address their servants. Thus a person of rank, in the consciousness of his pre-eminence, will speak to trades-people, and the prince to his subjects. Yet those persons frequently forget the comparative height, on which they stand, and are carried along with the stream of general politeness. Servants, however, are seldom spoken to in any other way, than the singular of the third personal: also those in a mean situation, such as common handicraftsmen, peasants, labourers, and others. The plural of the second personal, Ihr, is even a degree below this.*

3. The first and second personal pronouns are also endowed with a reciprocal power. For they are used reciprocally, without any addition; and *myself, thyself, ourself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves,* are expressed by, mich, dich, uns, euch. For the third person, there is a distinct reciprocal, which is mentioned above. In this respect, the German language differs from the English, in which the reciprocals are composed of the possessive pronouns, and the termination *self,* plur. *selves.* The Germans have the word, ſelbſt, or ſelber: but this expresses the Latin *ipse,* the French *même,* the Italian *stesso,* or *medesimo,* &c. and may be annexed, not only to pronouns, but to any substantive: Ich ſelbſt, I myself, that means, I, in my own person, no one else; du ſelbſt, thou thyself, er ſelbſt, he himself; wir ſelbſt, ihr ſelbſt, ſie ſelbſt.

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† The Danish language uses these pronouns nearly in the same manner. See Tobiesen's Neue Däniſche Sprachlehre, p. 34.

Der Mann ſelbſt, the man himself: die Leute ſelbſt, the people themselves, &c. It is to be observed, that when the third personal serves for the pronoun of address, the third reciprocal must correspond with it: for instance, Setze Er ſich, seat yourself, sit down, to a man of inferior condition, literally, let him seat himself; ſetze Sie ſich, to a woman of an inferior description, literally, let her seat herself; ſetzen Sie ſich, the plural, as a polite mode of speaking, literally, let them seat themselves.

4. The neuter of the third person singular, is used as the subject nominative, before and after verbs, and joined with all genders, and numbers. For example: Es iſt der Mann, it is the man; es iſt die Frau, it is the woman; es iſt das Kind, it is the child. Es ſind Männer, they are men; es ſind Weiber, they are women. Es iſt ein Mann hier, there is a man here; es iſt eine Frau hier, there is a woman here; es ſind Leute hier, there are people here. After a verb: as, Iſt es ein Mann, is it a man? ſind es Männer oder Weiber, are they men, or women? Ein Mann iſt es, it is a *man*; Männer ſind es, they are *men*. When thus placed, it either makes a question; or gives an emphasis to the substantive preceding.—It is put, where the English use the adverb *there*, as in this: Es folgten viele, *there* followed many; es ſtarben nur wenige, *there* died but few.

5. Es is sometimes contracted with other pronouns: as, Ichs, for ich es; mirs, for mir es; michs, for mich es. Dirs, for dir es; dichs, for dich es. Ihrs, for ihr es. Likewise with verbs of one syllable: for example, Iſts, for iſt es; gehts, for geht es;—indeed with any monosyl-

labick words, for instance: conjunctions, Wenns, weils, for wenn es, weil es. But, after all, these contractions are best avoided.

SECTION II.

PRONOUNS POSSESSIVE.

THESE are: Mein, my, or mine; Dein, thy, or thine; Sein, his; Ihr, her, or hers; Sein, its; Unſer, our, or ours; Euer, your, or yours; Ihr, their, or theirs. They have three genders, in the singular, and are declined in the same manner as the indefinite article, or the first numeral, viz.

Singular.

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	Mein (meiner),	meine,	mein (meines).
Gen.	Meines,	meiner,	meines.
Dat	Meinem,	meiner,	meinem.
Acc.	Meinen,	meine,	mein (meines).

Plural.

Nom. Meine.
Gen. Meiner.
Dat. Meinen.
Acc. Meine.

Like this, are varied: Dein, deine, dein; Sein, ſeine, ſein; Unſer, unſere, unſer; Euer, euere, euer; Ihr, ihre, ihr.

Observations.

1. These pronouns are either joined with substantives: as, Mein Vater, my father; deine Mutter, thy mother; ſein Kind, his child, &c.; or they stand by themselves: as, Es iſt mein, it is mine; es iſt dein, it is thine; es iſt ſein, it is his: es iſt ihr, it is hers; es iſt unſer, it is ours, es iſt euer, it is yours; es iſt ihr, it is theirs. When put absolutely, or by themselves, as in the examples last mentioned, the masculine gender, in the nominative singular, sometimes receives the termination *er*, and the neuter, in the nominative and accusative, that of *es*. But as these endings are not always added, a rule must be given, when that addition should take place, and when not. When simply a possession is signified, without any other idea attending it, neither those terminations, nor that of the feminine gender, are required: as, Der Garten iſt mein, the garden is mine; die Stube iſt dein, the room is yours; das Haus iſt ſein, the house is his. But when a comparison of possession is implied, those endings are to be subjoined. For example: *whose book is this? it is mine:* this must be, Es iſt meines, with the additional termination; because a comparison of possession is understood—is it that, which belongs to me, or that which belongs to you, or to a third person? the answer is, it is that which belongs to me. Weſſen Hund iſt das? whose dog is that? Es iſt unſerer, it is ours.—Weſſen Feder iſt das? whose pen is that? Es iſt ſeine, it is his. Here the same comparison is involved, and the termination affixed. So in the following: Iſt dieſes meines oder ihres? is this mine, or theirs?—Nein, es iſt deines, oder eures, no, it is thine,

or yours. This difference in the use of the possessives, though apparently nice, ought to be carefully observed. The rule, as before said, is: when a possession is merely indicated, the pronoun is put without the declinable endings, in the nominative singular, masculine, and the nominative and accusative, neuter, but when a distinction of the possessors is made, the terminations must be added. It is, of course, understood, that the substantive is never expressed, when these terminations are employed.*

2. In unſer, euer, the *e*, before *r*, is frequently left out, when a syllable comes after it: as, Unſrer, unſre, unſres, for unſerer, unſere, unſeres; eurer, eure, eures, for euerer, euere, eueres.

3. The possessive pronouns may be used absolutely, with the definite article: as, Der meine, die meine, das meine, mine; der deine, thine; der ſeine, his; der ihre, hers; der unſere, ours; der euere, yours; der ihre, theirs; I say *absolutely*, that means, with no substantive following, though understood. For example: Weſſen Hut iſt das? whose hat is that? Es iſt der meine, it is mine. Weſſen Uhr iſt das? whose watch is that? Es iſt die deine, it is thine. Weſſen Buch iſt das? whose book is that? Es iſt das ſeine, it is his. The French have the same manner of expression, in *le mien, le tien, le sien, le nôtre, le vôtre, le leur*. Indeed, they cannot put their possessive pronouns

* Compare with this what is said of the first numeral, p. 212, Obs. 1.

absolutely, unless the article is prefixed. In English, the article cannot be joined with them. But in German, the pronoun possessive absolute may either be used with, or without, the article: nor is it sufficiently defined, where the one, or the other, is preferable. It seems solely to depend on the sound, and the structure of the sentence: though, at the same time, it cannot be denied, that, when the article is made use of, the possession seems to be more distinctly marked. When united with the article, it is most usual to insert an additional syllable, namely *ig:* as, Der meinige, der deinige, der ſeinige, der ihrige, der unſrige, der eurige, der ihrige. The former, without the syllable *ig*, may be regarded as a peculiarity of the Upper German dialect, though it sometimes occurs in the best writers.—The definite article going before, these pronouns are declined after the third form of adjectives.

4. Dero and Ihro, are possessives, used in ancient and ceremonious language. They serve for addressing persons of distinction, being put for Ihr, your, or yours; and are not declined.

5. The possessives are sometimes found after genitive cases, supplying the place of the declinable ending in the substantives: as, Des Mann ſein Buch, the man his book, for Des Mannes Buch; der Frau ihr Kind, the woman's child, for das Kind der Frau. But this is not to be considered as a pure, and classical mode of expression.

SECTION III.

PRONOUNS DEMONSTRATIVE.

UNDER this head are comprised all those, which point out, or determine, the subject, to which they refer. They are: Dieſer, dieſe, dieſes, this; Lat. *hic, hæc, hoc.* Jener, jene, jenes, that; Lat. *ille, illa, illud.* Der, die, das, that; Lat. *is, ea, id;* or *iste, ista, istud.* Derjenige, diejenige, dasjenige, that; Lat. *is,* or *ille.* Derſelbe, dieſelbe, daſſelbe, the same; Lat. *idem, eadem, idem.*

A. Those which are properly demonstrative.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Dieſer,	dieſe,	dieſes, (or dieß*).	N. Dieſe.
Gen.	Dieſes,	dieſer,	dieſes.	G. Dieſer.
Dat.	Dieſem,	dieſer,	dieſem.	D. Dieſen.
Acc.	Dieſen,	dieſe,	dieſes, (or dieß).	A. Dieſe.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut	
Nom.	Jener,	jene,	jenes.	N. Jene.
Gen.	Jenes,	jener,	jenes.	G. Jener.
Dat.	Jenem,	jener,	jenem.	D. Jenen.
Acc.	Jenen,	jene,	jenes.	A. Jene.

* Dies, is sometimes written for dieß.

Observations.

1. When two demonstratives are put together, in the genitive and dative singular, and the genitive plural, the last of them may assume the termination *en*, instead of *er*, *em*, *es*. By this means the concurrence of the same syllables is avoided, if that should be thought objectionable. For example: Die Meinungen dieſes und jenen Mannes, (for jenes), the opinion of this and that man; or in the plural, dieſer und jenen Männer, of such and such men. Von dieſer und jenen Geſchichte—(dat. fem. for jener), of this and that history. Aus dieſem und jenen Buche (for jenen); out o such and such a book.

2. The neuter singular of these pronouns, is placed before and after verbs, without any distinction of gender or number, in the same manner as the personal Es. See above.* For instance: Die,es, or dieß, iſt ein Mann, this is a man; jenes iſt eine Frau, that is a woman; dieß ſind Menſchen, these are men. Was für ein Mann iſt dieß? what man is this? Was für eine Frau iſt dieß? what woman is this? Was für Leute ſind dieß? what people are these?

B. Determinative Pronouns.—They determine, or limit, the subject, by causing it to depend upon a relative, which follows.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Der,	die,	das.	N. Die.
Gen.	Deſſen, (or deß),	deren,	deſſen, (or deß).	G. Derer. (or deren.)
Dat.	Dem,	der,	dem.	D. Denen.
Acc.	Den,	die,	das.	A. Die.

* P. 233.

Singular.

Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. Derjenige,	diejenige,	dasjenige.
Gen. Desjenigen,	derjenigen,	desjenigen.
Dat. Demjenigen,	derjenigen,	demjenigen.
Acc. Denjenigen,	diejenige,	dasjenige.

Plural.

Nom. Diejenigen.	Dat. Denjenigen.
Gen. Derjenigen.	Acc. Diejenigen.

Singular.

Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. Derselbe,	dieselbe,	dasselbe.
Gen. Desselben,	derselben,	desselben.
Dat. Demselben,	derselben,	demselben.
Acc. Denselben,	dieselbe,	dasselbe.

Plural.

Nom. Dieselben	Dat. Denseben.
Gen. Derselben.	Acc. Dieselben.

Observations.

1. These pronouns may be joined to substantives, or stand by themselves: as, Der Mensch, welcher tugendhaft lebt, ist weise, that man, who lives virtuously, is wise—Der, welcher tugendhaft lebt, ist weise, he, who lives virtuously, is wise. Derjenige Mensch, welcher Ungerechtigkeit liebt, ist ein Bösewicht, that man who loves injustice, is a villain—Derjenige, welcher Ungerechtigkeit liebt, ist ein Bösewicht, he, who loves injustice, &c. Derselbe Mensch, welcher—or Derselbe, welcher.

2. The relative generally follows after Derjenige: but not always after Der, and Derſelbe. For example: Es iſt der Mann, it is *that* man; es iſt derſelbe Mann, it is *the same* man. When Der is by itself, neither before a substantive, nor followed by a relative, some local adverb is commonly added to it, such as, hier, da, dort: Der da, that person there; der hier, that person here: der dort, that person yonder. Weſſen Haus iſt das? whose house is that? Deſſen da, or deß da, that person's. Wem gehört es? to whom does it belong? Dem da, to that person.

3. The genitive case of the demonstrative, der, die, das, in all genders, and both numbers, frequently serves as a substitute for the third possessive pronoun, viz. deſſen, deren, deſſen, for, his, hers, its; derer, or deren, pl. for their. This will be noticed more at length, in another place.

4. Der, die, das, when serving as a demonstrative pronoun, has a stronger accent, in pronunciation, than the definite article, by which it is distinguished from the latter. The genitive plural should always be derer, to discriminate it from the gen. singular fem.; but nevertheless, it is frequently expressed by deren, sometimes with a view to ameliorate the sound: as, Deren einer, one of those, for derer einer.—This pronoun, when joined with the adverb eben, signifies *the same*. Lat. *idem*, and is equal in meaning to derſelbe: as, Eben der Mann, the same man; eben die Frau, the same woman; eben das Kind, the same child.

5. Das, like dieß, and es, is seen in connexion with different numbers, and genders: as, Das iſt der Mann, that is

the man; das iſt die Frau, that is the woman; das ſind die Leute, those are the people.

6. Derſelbe, is frequently employed with the signification of the third personal, or that of a simple demonstrative, in a similar manner as, in English, *the same* is sometimes, though not often, used. For example: *I have received the book, and read the same*, for, *and read it.* Ich habe das Buch erhalten und daſſelbe geleſen. Thus *its*, would be expressed by deſſelben. But its peculiar and original power is the Latin *idem.* In that sense, it sometimes has the adverb eben, before it, which gives it additional force, eben derſelbe, the very same; and occasionally also the first numeral, which still increases the meaning: as, Ein und eben derſelbe, one and the same.

7. Derſelbige, dieſelbige, daſſelbige, *the same*, is synonymous with derſelbe, dieſelbe, daſſelbe. Sometimes it has a strong demonstrative power, signifying *that;* but altogether it is a word, not of the most classical stamp.

8. Der nämliche, and der gleiche, occur as substitutes for derſelbe; but the latter not so frequently.

9. Selbiger, e, es, Lat. *is, ea, id;* ſolcher, e, es, or rather, ein ſolcher, such a one; and, ſo ein, ſo eine, ſo ein, may be added to the list of demonstrative pronouns. The first mentioned coincides, in its meaning, with derjenige, and der, but it is not so much in use: as, Selbiger Menſch, that man, or the said man, for der Menſch; zu ſelbiger Zeit, at that time, for zu der Zeit.

10. Instead of the demonstrative pronouns, with certain prepositions, the local adverbs hier, here, and da,

there, are often employed: hier, may then be changed into hie, before a consonant, and da, must be transformed into dar, before a vowel. For example: Hiermit, or hiemit, herewith, for mit dieſem, with this; hieraus, hereout, hence, for aus dieſem, out of this; hieran, hereon, for an dieſem, on this. Davon, thereof, for von dem, of, or from, that; or for the plural, von denen, of, or from, those; daran, thereon, thereat, for an dem, on that; daraus, thereout, or aus dem, out of that; darin, therein; darein, thereinto; darauf, thereupon, darüber, for über das, upon that, thereupon; damit, therewith, for mit dem, with that, &c.

SECTION IV.

PRONOUNS RELATIVE, AND INTERROGATIVE.

THESE are, Welcher, welche, welches, who, and which; and Wer, neut. was, who, what. Der, die, das, is like the English *that*, used in a relative signification.

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Welcher,	welche,	welches.	N. Welche.
Gen.	Welches,	welcher,	welches.	G. Welcher.
Dat.	Welchem,	welcher,	welchem.	D. Welchen.
Acc.	Welchen,	welches,	welches.	A. Welche.

	Singular.		*Plural none.*
	Masc. and Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	Wer	Was.	
Gen.	Weſſen (or weß).		
Dat.	Wem,		
Acc.	Wen,	Was.	

	Singular.			*Plural.*
	Masc	Fem	Neut.	
Nom.	Der,	die,	das.	N. Die.
Gen.	Deſſen,	deren, (or der* ?)	deſſen.	G. Derer, (or deren).
Dat.	Dem,	der,	dem.	D. Denen.
Acc.	Den,	die,	das.	A. Die.

Observations.

1. The English distinguish, in their relatives, the pronouns *who*, and *which*; applying the former to persons, and the latter to animals, and things. The Germans admit no such difference. They use welcher, in relation to the one and the other. In English, *that*, frequently performs the function of *who*, or *which*, especially for the purpose of avoiding repetition. In a similar manner, the Germans employ der, die, das, instead of welcher, welche, welches. The former has the advantage of brevity: and is, therefore, often preferred: though in many places, welcher would be decidedly better. The latter ought to be considered as the proper, and genuine relative; and der, die, das, only as an occasional substitute. Welcher should have the preference: 1) After the first, and

* For ex: Eine Kriegesliſt, der ſich Cäſar bediente, a stratagem, which Cæsar employed. But I am of opinion that the genitive, der, is incorrect: it should always be deren.

second, personal pronouns.* Ich, welcher—I who: Du, welcher—thou who; Ihr, welche—you who; Sie (being used as a pronoun of address, *They*, for *you*†), welche—they who. 2) When the relative immediately precedes the verb, without another word intervening: as, Ein Mann, welcher ſchreibt, a man who is writing; ein Kind, welches lieſt, a child which is reading. 3) When the definite article, or a demonstrative pronoun goes just before: as, Der Mann, welcher—dieſer Menſch, welcher—jene Frau, welche—dasjenige Kind, welches. This third distinction is not sufficiently regarded, in practice; and those pronouns are promiscuously used. That this is wrong, cannot escape the observation of an accurate judge. By allowing Der, die, das, to follow closely after the definite article, or a demonstrative pronoun, an unpleasant uniformity of sound is, in the first place, created. Secondly, Der, die, das, having itself the qualifications of the definite article, and of a pronoun demonstrative, a mutability of signification is exhibited: which is no virtue in any word, nor in any language, and is the more objectionable, when there is another term in existence, in every respect of the same power, and aptness, which is exempt from those imperfections. In the two other situations, Der would produce an abruptness of sound, from which the German language is averse. Therefore, Ich, der viele Bücher geleſen

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* After the first personal, of the plural, Wir, it would be objectionable to employ welche, on account of the alliteration. It is, in this instance, expedient to say Wir die wir.

† See p. 229.

habe, I who have read many books; must be changed into, Ich, welcher viele Bücher geleſen habe: and, instead of, Ein Knabe, der ſchreibt, a boy that writes; it will be proper to say, Ein Knabe, welcher ſchreibt. The defect of abruptness, in the relative Der, is often remedied by the addition of certain words to that pronoun. Namely, when placed after the first, or second, personal, the antecedent pronoun is repeated after the relative. For example: Ich, der ich viele Bücher geleſen habe, I who have read many books; Du, der du hier ſteheſt, thou who standest here. Wir, die wir hier verſammelt ſind, we who are here assembled; Ihr, die ihr euer Vaterland liebt, you who love your country.* When alone with a verb, after the third personal, or a substantive, the adverb da is joined with it: as, Ein Knabe, der da ſchreibt, a boy that writes. Da, signifies *there*, but serves, in this juncture, as a mere expletive, to lengthen the short relative pronoun.—Der, as a relative, never stands united with a substantive; for instance, der Mann, cannot express, *which man.*

2. The genitive plural of the pronoun Der, die, das, is properly derer; but when it is used in a relative signification, it is commonly changed into deren, though not always.†

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* In such a connexion, the preceding personal is sometimes spared: as, Die ihr ein Lied der Liebe wagt, ye that venture on a song of love, for ihr, die ihr, &c.—Herder, Zerſtreute Blätter, Vol. 3, p. 31.)

† Dann ſeufze ſie nach in jenen Blumen,
Derer Haupt am Hügel
Schwerer und geſenkter iſt.

3. The adverb ſo, so, sometimes represents the relative. For example: Die Wahrheit, welche von einem Werke, wie dasjenige iſt, ſo wir den Liebhabern hiermit vorlegen, gefodert werden kann, beſtehet darin, &c. "The veracity that can be required of a work, like the one *which* we now lay before the lovers of elegant literature, consists in this," &c. Wieland. It is a peculiarity of the ancient style, and at present only resorted to, for the purpose of preventing the repetition of other relatives. When the verb follows after it, without any other word between, da is added, as in the relative der, die, das. For example, in Bürger's Lenore:

Doch keiner war, der Kundſchaft gab,
Von allen, ſo da kamen, (*i. e.* welche kamen).

"Of all that came."

4. Wer, who, as a relative, always begins a sentence: what otherwise would be the antecedent, follows. For example: Wer auf dem Wege, der Tugend wandelt, iſt glücklich, he who walks in the path of virtue, is happy. It is never put *after* an antecedent. It would, for instance, be a solecism to say, der Mann, wer die Geſetze ehrt, the man, who respects the laws. Here a different relative is required. Nor can wer be connected with a substantive,

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"Then repeat my sounds, sighing, among those flowers, whose heads, near the grave, are drooping and declining."—From Denis's Monody on the Death of Gellert. Here the genitive derer, is more emphatick and distinct, than deren would appear.

as, wer Mann, which man ; for welcher Mann. When wer stands alone with the verb, da is frequently added to it, in the same manner, as it is to der (see the former page); as, Wer da glaubt, daß dieß so sey, irrt sich, he who thinks that this is so, is mistaken.——The neuter was, may either commence a sentence, or be placed after an antecedent. For example: Was gerecht ist, verdient Lob, what is just, deserves praise ; das, was du mir gesagt hast, that which you have told me; alles, was ich gesehen habe, all I have seen. It stands here to signify *which ;* and is very properly employed after an antecedent, denoting something general, and undetermined. When an individual, or particular subject precedes, it is necessary to express the neuter, *which*, by welches: as, das Buch, welches Sie mir geliehen haben, the book which you have lent me. This rule is sometimes neglected, and was put, where welches ought to be the relative ; but such deviations are not to be approved. Wer, occasionally, signifies *somebody* : as, Es ist wer da, there is somebody ; and was, *something* : as, Ich habe was, I have got something. But these expressions are not classical.

5. The relative pronoun is often omitted in English, and to be understood, in a sentence. For example: " The man I love," *i. e. whom* I love.

The pensive muse shall own thee for her mate,
And still protect the song she loves so well.

CHARLOTTE SMITH.

i. e. which she loves,

Simply the thing I am shall make me live.—SHAKSPEARE.

i. e. which I am.—In German, the relative must always be expressed.

6. The pronouns Wer, neuter, was: and welcher, welche, welches, also serve to questions, or in other words, have the signification of interrogatives.—Wer is applied to persons, either male or female, and was to things. They ask the questions, in a general way, as the English *who*, and *what*: and are never joined with a substantive. Welcher, welche, welches, refers to particular objects, and may be united with substantives. It answers to the English interrogative, *which*: as, Welcher Mann, which man?

7. Was is combined with the indefinite article, to express the French interrogative, or exclamatory, pronoun, *quel*, Lat. *qualis*, and the English *what*, with or without the indefinite article, as, *what man?* or *what a man!* But in German, the preposition für is inserted, between was, and the article: as, Was für ein Mann, what man, or, what a man; was für eine Frau, what woman, or, what a woman; was für ein Kind, what child, or, what a child. It is literally, *what for a man*, *what for a woman*. This preposition had probably a meaning, when it was first introduced; which, by time, has been obliterated.* The indefinite article is omitted

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* The Swedes, Danes, and Dutch, have the same manner of expression; and in Shakespeare, (Much Ado about nothing, Act. 1. last scene) the following passage is found: "*What* is he *for a* fool that betrothes himself to unquietness." *What for a fool*, seems to be said instead of *What a fool*, and to correspond with the German mode of speaking.

as in English, before the plural number, and when the idea is of a general cast, rather than referring to an individual object: for example, Was für Menſchen, what men! was für Zeug, what stuff! was für Wein, what wine!—Welch ein, fem. welch eine: pl. welche, are occasionally used in the room of, was für ein, was für eine, and was für.

8. The local adverb Wo, where, with a proposition, frequently fills the place of a relative pronoun. For example; Womit, wherewith, instead of, mit welchem, fem. welcher, or plur. mit welchen, with which: wovon, whereof, instead of von welchem, welcher, welchen, of which; wodurch, wherethrough, for durch welchen, welche, welches, through which; wozu, whereto, for zu welchem, welcher, welchen, to which; worin, wherein; woran, whereon, whereat. When the preposition begins with a vowel, *r* is inserted after wo: as, Woraus, whereout, for out of which; worüber, whereupon, whereover, for, upon which, or over which*.

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* *Wolf*, in the preface, or introduction to *Literarische Analekten*, Vol. 1. p. 15, below, has the relative adverb, worohne, without which. I have not met with this compound anywhere else.

SECTION V.

MISCELLANEOUS PRONOUNS.

UNDER this denomination are to be comprehended several words, which could not conveniently be classed with the former divisions. They are: Jeder, jedweder, mancher, man, jemand, niemand, and ſelbſt, or ſelber.

1. Jeder, jede, jedes, each, every (one); jedweder, jedwede, jedwedes, each, every (one); mancher, manche, manches, many a (one). They are either put before substantives, or may stand by themselves; and are all declined.

2. Man, is not declined. It implies a general, or indefinite, personality, answering to the French *On;* and takes the verb in the singular number. For example: Man ſagt, French, *on dit*, people say, they say; man ſpricht, Fr. *on parle*, people talk, they talk. The English make use of different expressions, such as, *we, you, they, a person, one;* where the Germans employ man, and the French *on*. For instance: Man muß ſich hüten, Fr. on doit prendre garde, *a person*, or *one*, must take care; mann irrt ſich, wenn man glaubt,—on se trompe, si l'on pense, *a person*, or *one*, mistakes, if he thinks. —The oblique cases of the indefinite article are placed in a corresponding relation with man. For example: Man ärgert ſich immer, wenn einem gewiſſe Erwartungen fehlſchlagen, a person is always vexed, when he is disappointed in certain expectations. Man irrt ſich, wenn man glaubt, der große Haufe ſchätze einen wahrer Verdienſte wegen,

one is mistaken, if he thinks, that the multitude esteems him for true merit.—In these examples, einem, and einen, dative and accusative cases of the indefinite article, answer to man.

3. Jemand, some one, some body, any one, any body; jederman, every one; niemand, no one. These words seem to be composed of the foregoing man, and of je, ever; jeder, each; nie, never. In the genitive case, they have *s* added: as, jemands, jedermans, niemands. The dative and accusative are like the nominative, or sometimes, but not usually, marked by the termination *en*: as, jemanden, niemanden; never in jederman. Now and then, an adjective is put after jemand, and niemand, in the neuter gender, second form: as, jemand Vornehmes, some great, or genteel, person; jemand Fremdes, some stranger; from vornehm, and fremd. Thus niemand Vornehmes, no great, or genteel, person; niemand Fremdes, no stranger. But there is something ungrammatical in those modes of expression, at least something, which cannot be accounted for, from grammar; and thence they are not to be recommended for imitation. Instead of jemand Vornehmes, you may say, ein vornehmer Mann, a great man, or ein vornehmer Herr, a great gentleman; or if it be a lady, ein vornehmes Frauenzimmer: or if more than one person, vornehme Leute, great people; and for niemand Fremdes, kein Fremder, no stranger: by which means those phrases may be avoided.—The first numeral Einer, occasionally stands for jemand, some one: but this is, perhaps, to be considered as an abuse of that word.

4. The invariable pronoun ſelbſt, or ſelber, resembling the English *self*, may be added to any pronoun, or to any substantive. For example: Ich ſelbſt, I myself; du ſelbſt, thou thyself; er ſelbſt, he himself; der Mann ſelbſt, the man himself; die Frau ſelbſt, the woman herself; wir ſelbſt, we ourselves; ihr ſelbſt, you yourselves; ſie ſelbſt, they themselves; die Leute ſelbſt, the people themselves. The English *self*, must previously be compounded with a pronoun, such as, *him*, *her*, *my*, *thy*, *our*, *&c.* to qualify it for an adjunct to a substantive, or personal pronoun, as, the man *him*self, the woman *her*self, I *my*self, thou *thy*self; it is likewise varied in the plural, as, we *ourselves;* but the German word is neither compounded, nor declined. It may be placed, as an adverb, before a substantive, or pronoun, in which situation it signifies *even:* as, Selbſt ich, even I; ſelbſt du, even thou; ſelbſt ſie, even they; ſelbſt der Mann, even the man; ſelbſt die Leute, even the people. Selbſt, is preferable to ſelber.—Selbſt, or abridged ſelb, is sometimes connected with ordinal numbers: as, Selbſtdritter, or ſelbdritter, ſelbvierter; ſelbzehnter; ſelbzwanzigſter. It then implies that the person, to whom the number refers, is accompanied by so many others. For example: Ich ſelbvierter, I myself the fourth, that means, three besides me; der König ſelbſtzwanzigſter, the king the twentieth, that is, the king, and nineteen persons besides.*

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* Selbzwanzigſter gefangen, und allein vom Saladin begnadigt; —I was taken with nineteen others, but alone spared by Saladin.—Leſſing's Nathan der Weiſe, Act. 1. Sc. 5.

CHAPTER IV.

ON THE VERB.

Containing.

1. *The Auxiliary Verbs,*
2. *The Conjugation of Regular Verbs,*
3. *The Irregular Verbs,*
4. *Verbs Neuter,*
5. *Reflective Verbs,*
6. *Impersonal Verbs,*
7. *Compound Verbs.*

SECTION I.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

If verbs auxiliary be those, which are indispensably required to complete a conjugation, we must recognise three such verbs, in the German language.

The first is haben, to have. This serves for the formation of the preterperfect, preterpluperfect, and second future, tenses, in the active voice.

The second Seyn, to be. It forms the preterfect, preterpluperfect, and second future, of some neuter verbs; and likewise helps to compose those tenses, in the passive voice.

The third is Werden. This verb signifies, 1. a future

event, which may consist in acting, being, or suffering. Thus it expresses the English auxiliaries of the future tense, *shall* and *will*; and seems to resemble the Greek verb μέλλω. With this qualification, it produces all the future tenses. 2. It denotes the coming into a certain state, or condition. Therefore, when joined with a noun, it answers to the Latin *fio*, and the English *to become*. But with this power, it is likewise employed to form the passive voice.

Note.—It will be seen, from the examples of the German conjugation, in the following pages, that the principal parts of the verb are: the present, and preterimperfect tenses of the indicative mood, the infinitive, and the preterite participle. These may be considered as the roots from which all, or most, tenses are derived. For which reason, they will be placed at the head of every verb that is exhibited for the purpose of conjugation.

First Auxiliary. Haben, to have.

Habe, present tense; Hatte, preterimperfect; Gehabt, preterite participle.

INDICATIVE MOOD.	SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
Present Tense.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich habe, I have.	1 Ich habe, (if) I have.
2. Du haſt, thou hast.	2. Du habeſt, (if) thou have.
3. Er, (ſie, es) hat, he, (she, it) has.	3. Er, (ſie, es), habe, (if he, (she, it) have.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir haben, we have.	1. Wir haben, (if) we have.
2. Ihr habet, or habt, you have.	2. Ihr habet, (if) you have.
3. Sie haben, they have.	3. Sie haben, (if) they have.

Preterimperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich hatte, I had.	1. Ich hätte, (if) I had.
2. Du hatteſt, thou hadst.	2. Du hätteſt, (if) thou had.
3. Er hatte, he had.	3. Er hätte, he had.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir hatten, we had.	1. Wir hätten, we had.
2. Ihr hattet, you had.	2. Ihr hättet, you had.
3. Sie hatten, they had.	3. Sie hätten, they had.

Preterperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich habe gehabt, I have had.	1. Ich habe gehabt, (if) I have had.
2. Du haſt gehabt, thou hast had.	2. Du habeſt gehabt, (if) thou have had.
3. Er hat gehabt, he has had.	3. Er habe gehabt, he have had.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir haben gehabt, we have had.	1. Wir haben gehabt, we have had.
2. Ihr habet, or habt, gehabt, you have had.	2. Ihr habet gehabt, you have had.
3. Sie haben gehabt, they have had.	3. Sie haben gehabt, they have had.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich hatte gehabt, I had had.	1. Ich hätte gehabt, (if) I had had.
2. Du hattest gehabt, thou hadst had.	2. Du hättest gehabt, (if) thou had had
3. Er hatte gehabt, he had had.	3. Er hätte gehabt, he had had.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir hatten gehabt, we had had.	1. Wir hätten gehabt, we had had.
2. Ihr hattet gehabt, you had had.	2. Ihr hättet gehabt, you had had.
3. Sie hatten gehabt, they had had.	3. Sie hätten gehabt, they had had.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde haben, I shall have.	1. Ich werde haben, (if) I shall have.
2. Du wirſt haben, thou shalt, or wilt, have.	2. Du werdeſt haben, (if) thou shalt have.
3. Er wird haben, he shall, or will, have.	3. Er werde haben, (if) he shall have.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden haben, we shall have.	1. Wir werden haben, (if) we shall have.
2. Ihr werdet haben, you shall, or will, have.	2. Ihr werdet haben, (if) you shall have.
3. Sie werden haben, they shall, or will, have.	3. Sie werden haben, (if) they shall have.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gehabt haben, I shall have had.	1. Ich werde gehabt haben, (if) I shall have had.
2. Du wirſt gehabt haben, thou shalt, or wilt, have had.	2 Du werdeſt gehabt haben, (if) thou shalt have had.
3. Er wird gehabt haben, he shall, or will, have had.	3. Er werde gehabt haben, (if) he shall have had.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden gehabt haben, we shall have had.	1. Wir werden gehabt haben, (if) we shall have had.
2. Ihr werdet gehabt haben, you shall, or will, have had.	2. Ihr werdet gehabt haben, (if) you shall have had.
3. Sie werden gehabt haben, they shall, or will, have had.	3. Sie werden gehabt haben, (if) they shall have had.

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde haben, I should, or would, have.
2. Du würdeſt haben, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have.
3. Er würde haben, he should, or would, have.

Plural.

1. Wir würden haben, we should, or would, have.
2. Ihr würdet haben, you should, or would, have.
3. Sie würden haben, they should, or would, have.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gehabt haben, I should, or would, have had.
2. Du würdeſt gehabt haben, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have had.
3. Er würde gehabt haben, he should, or would, have had.

Plural.

1. Wir würden gehabt haben, we should, or would, have had.
2. Ihr würdet gehabt haben, you should, or would, have had.
3. Sie würden gehabt haben, they should, or would, have had.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Haben wir, let us have.*)
2. Habe (du), have (thou).	2. Habet, or habt (ihr), have (you.)
3. Habe er, (sie, es), let, him, (her, it,) have.	3. Haben sie, let them have.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present,	Haben, to have.
Pret. perf.	Gehabt haben, to have had.
Future,	Haben werden, to be about to have.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Habend, having.
Preterite, Gehabt, had.

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* The first person plural, of the imperative, is not commonly met with. The verb lassen, to let, is usually employed, as it is in English, to express that idea. Now and then, you see the bare imperative thus used, as, gehen wir, let us go; haben wir Geduld, let us have patience: but this is a deviation from the general practice, and to be considered as an innovation, or a peculiarity.

Second Auxiliary. Seyn, to be.

Bin, pres.; War, pret. imperf.; Geweſen, pret. part.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich bin, I am.	1. Ich ſey, (if) I be.
2. Du biſt, thou art.	2. Du ſeyeſt, or ſeyſt, thou be.
3. Er iſt, he is.	3. Er ſey, he be.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir ſind, we are.	1. Wir ſeyen, or ſeyn, we be.
2. Ihr ſeyd, you are.	2. Ihr ſeyed, or ſeyd, you be.
3. Sie ſind, they are.	3. Sie ſeyen, or ſeyn, they be.
Preterimperfect.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich war, I was.	1. Ich wäre, (if) I were.
2. Du wareſt, or warſt, thou wast.	2. Du wäreſt, thou wert.
3. Er war, he was.	3. Er wäre, he were.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir waren, we were.	1. Wir wären, we were.
2. Ihr waret, or wart, you were.	2. Ihr wäret, you were.
3. Sie waren, they were.	3. Sie wären, they were.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich bin geweſen, I have been.	1. Ich ſey geweſen, (if) I have been.
2. Du biſt geweſen, thou hast been.	2. Du ſeyeſt, or ſeyſt, geweſen, (if) thou have been.
3. Er iſt geweſen, he has been.	3. Er ſey geweſen, (if) he have been.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir ſind geweſen, we have been.	1. Wir ſeyen, or ſeyn, geweſen, we have been.
2. Ihr ſeyd geweſen, you have been.	2. Ihr ſeyed, or ſeyd, geweſen, you have been.
3. Sie ſind geweſen, they have been.	3. Sie ſeyen, or ſeyn, geweſen, they have been.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich war geweſen, I had been.	1. Ich wäre geweſen, (if) I had been.
2. Du wareſt geweſen, thou hadst been.	2. Du wäreſt geweſen, (if) thou had been.
3. Er war geweſen, he had been.	3. Er wäre geweſen, (if) he had been.

INDICATIVE.

Plural.

1. Wir waren geweſen, we had been.
2. Ihr waret geweſen, you had been.
3. Sie waren geweſen, they had been.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Plural.

1. Wir wären geweſen, we had been.
2. Ihr wäret geweſen, you had been.
3. Sie wären geweſen, they had been.

First Future.

Singular.

1. Ich werde ſeyn, I shall be.
2. Du wirſt ſeyn, thou shalt, or wilt, be.
3. Er wird ſeyn, he shall, or will, be.

Singular.

1. Ich werde ſeyn, (if) I shall be.
2. Du werdeſt ſeyn, thou shalt be.
3. Er werde ſeyn, he shall be.

Plural.

1. Wir werden ſeyn, we shall, be.
2. Ihr werdet ſeyn, you shall, or will, be.
3. Sie werden ſeyn, they shall, or will, be.

Plural.

1. Wir werden ſeyn, we shall be.
2. Ihr werdet ſeyn, you shall be.
3. Sie werden ſeyn, they shall be.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

Second Future.

Singular.

1. Ich werde geweſen ſeyn, I shall have been.
2. Du wirſt geweſen ſeyn, thou shalt, or wilt, have been.
3. Er wird geweſen ſeyn, he shall, or will, have been.

Singular.

1. Ich werde geweſen ſeyn, (if) I shall have been.
2. Du werdeſt geweſen ſeyn. thou shalt have been,
3. Er werde geweſen ſeyn, he shall have been.

Plural.

1. Wir werden geweſen ſeyn, we shall have been.
2. Ihr werdet geweſen ſeyn, you shall, or will, have been.
3. Sie werden geweſen ſeyn, they shall, or will, have been.

Plural.

1. Wir werden geweſen ſeyn, we shall have been.
2. Ihr werdet geweſen ſeyn, you shall have been.
3. Sie werden geweſen ſeyn, they shall have been.

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde ſeyn, I should, or would, be.
2. Du würdeſt ſeyn, thou shouldst, or wouldst, be.
3. Er würde ſeyn, he should, or would, be.

Plural.

1. Wir würden ſeyn, we should, or would, be.
2. Ihr würdet ſeyn, you should, or would, be.
3. Sie würden ſeyn, they should, or would, be.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde geweſen ſeyn, I should, or would, have been.
2. Du würdeſt geweſen ſeyn, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have been.
3. Er würde geweſen ſeyn, he should, or would have been.

Plural.

1. Wir würden geweſen ſeyn, we should, or would, have been.
2. Ihr würdet geweſen ſeyn, you should, or would, have been.
3. Sie würden geweſen ſeyn, they should, or would, have been.

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.

2. Sey (du) be (thou).
3. Sey er, let him.

Plural.

(1. Seyen, or ſeyn, wir, let us be).
2. Seyd (ihr,), be (you).
3. Seyen, or ſeyn, ſie, let them be.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Seyn, to be.
Preterperf. Geweſen ſeyn, to have been.
Fut. Seyn werden, to be about to be.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Seyend, being.
Preterite, Gewefen, been.

Third Auxiliary. Werden, to become.

Werde, pres.; Wurde (or ward*), imperf.; Geworden, (or worden), pret. part.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde, I become.	1. Ich werde, (if) I become.
2. Du wirſt, thou becomest.	6. Du werdeſt, (if) thou become.
3. Er wird, he becomes.	3. Er werde, (if) he become.

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* I am opinion that the form Wurde, throughout the imperfect, is preferable to the adoption of Ward, in some of the persons. By the mixture of the two forms, the inflection becomes irregular, for which there is no necessity: and when an anomaly can be avoided, it should, on general principle, be done. The preterimperfect of Werden, therefore, appears somewhat different, in the present and fourth editions, from what it did in the former ones. See the Exercises, p. 53. note 1.

INDICATIVE.

Plural.

1. Wir werden, we become.
2. Ihr werdet, you become.
3. Sie werden, they become.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Plural.

1. Wir werden, we become.
2. Ihr werdet, you become.
3. Sie werden, they become.

Preterimperfect.

Singular.

1. Ich wurde, (or ward), I became.
2. Du wurdeſt, (or wardſt), thou becamest.
3. Er wurde, (or ward), he became.

Singular.

1. Ich würde, (if) I became.
2. Du würdeſt, (if) thou became.
3. Er würde, he became.

Plural.

1. Wir wurden, we became.
2. Ihr wurdet, you became.
3. Sie wurden, they became.

Plural.

1. Wir würden, we became.
2. Ihr würdet, you became.
3. Sie würden, they became.

Preterperfect.

Singular.

1. Ich bin geworden, or worden, I have become.
2. Du biſt geworden, or worden, thou hast become.
3. Er iſt geworden, or worden, he has become.

Singular.

1. Ich ſey geworden, or worden, (if) I have become.
2. Du ſeyeſt, or ſeyſt, geworden, or worden, (if) thou have become.
3. Er ſey geworden, or worden, (if) he have become.

INDICATIVE.

Plural.

1. Wir ſind, geworden, or worden, we have become.
2. Ihr ſeyd geworden, or worden, you have become.
3. Sie ſind geworden, or worden, they have become.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Plural.

1. Wir ſeyen, or ſeyn, geworden, or worden, we have become.
1. Ihr ſeyed, or ſeyd geworden, or worden, you have become.
3. Sie ſeyen, or ſeyn, geworden, or worden, they have become.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.

1. Ich war geworden, or worden, I had become.
2. Du wareſt, (warſt), geworden, or worden, thou hadst become.
2. Er war geworden, or worden, he had become.

Singular.

1. Ich wäre geworden, or worden, (if) I had become.
2. Du wäreſt geworden, or worden, (if) thou had become.
3. Er wäre geworden, or worden, (if) he had become.

Plural.

1. Wir waren geworden, or worden, we had become.
2. Ihr waret (wart) geworden, or worden, you had become.
3. Sie waren geworden, or worden, they had become.

Plural.

1. Wir wären geworden, or worden, we had become.
2. Ihr wäret geworden, or worden, you had become.
3. Sie wären geworden, or worden, they had become.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde werden, I shall become.	1. Ich werde werden, (if) I shall become.
2. Du wirſt werden, thou shalt, or wilt, become.	2. Du werdeſt werden, thou shalt become.
3. Er wird werden, he shall, or will, become.	3. Er werde werden, he shall become.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden werden, we shall become.	1. Wir werden werden, we shall become.
2. Ihr werdet werden, you shall, or will, become.	2. Ihr werdet werden, you shall become.
3. Sie werden werden, they shall, or will, become.	3. Sie werden werden, they shall become.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde geworden, or worden, ſeyn, I shall have become.	1. Ich werde geworden, or worden, ſeyn, (if) I shall have become.
2. Du wirſt geworden, or worden, ſeyn, thou shalt, or wilt have become.	2. Du werdeſt geworden, or worden, ſeyn, thou shalt have become.
3. Er wird geworden, or worden, ſeyn, he shall, or will, have become.	3. Er werde geworden, or worden, ſeyn, he shall have become.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden geworden, or worden, ſeyn, we shall have become.	1. Wir werden geworden, or worden, ſeyn, we shall have become.
2. Ihr werdet geworden, or worden, ſeyn, you shall, or will, have become.	2. Ihr werdet geworden, or worden, ſeyn, you shall have become.
3. Sie werden geworden, or worden, ſeyn, they shall. or will, have become.	3. Sie werden geworden, or worden, ſeyn, they shall have become.

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde werden, I should, or would, become.
2. Du würdeſt werden, thou shouldst, or wouldst, become.
3. Er würde werden, he should, or would, become.

Plural.

1. Wir würden werden, we should, or would, become.
2. Ihr würdet werden, you should, or would, become.
3. Sie würden werden, they should; or would, become.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde geworden, or worden, ſeyn, I should, or would, have become.
2. Du würdeſt geworden, or worden, ſeyn, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have become.
3. Er würde geworden, or worden, ſeyn, he should, or would, have become.

Plural.

1. Wir würden geworden, or worden, ſeyn, we should, or would, have become.
2. Ihr würdet geworden, or worden, ſeyn, you should, or would, have become.
3. Sie würden geworden, or worden, ſeyn, they should, or would, have become.

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Werden wir, let us become).
2. Werde (du) become (thou).	2. Werdet (ihr) become (you).
3. Werde er, let him become.	3. Werden ſie, let them become.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Werden, to become.
Pret. perfect. Geworden, or worden, ſeyn, to have become.
Fut. Werden werden, to be about to become.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Werdend, becoming.
Preterite, Geworden, or worden, become.

Observations.

1. According to the English grammar, the verbs *may*, *will*, *shall*, *let*, are, in conjugating, employed as auxiliaries. They are not necessarily required for the German conjugation. The ideas which they convey, are, indeed, expressed by similar verbs, in German, but these cannot be considered in the character of auxiliaries. They have, however, by some grammarians been introduced under that denomination. For this no ground can be assigned, except that they are combined with other verbs, which they govern in the infinitive mood. But if that be admitted as a criterion of helping verbs, their number may be still farther increased. True auxiliaries are only those, without which no complete conjugation can be formed: and under this description come the three verbs, that have been exhibited.—It may not be improper to say a few words of the other supposed auxiliaries, in order to make their nature more perfectly understood. They are: Ich mag, similar to the English, I may; ich will, answering to, I will; ich ſoll, I shall. To these may be added: Ich kann, I can; ich darf, I dare; ich muß, I must; ich laſſe, I let. Those verbs are defective in English, all but two, *to let*, and *to dare*; in German, they are conjugated through all persons, tenses, and moods, excepting perhaps the imperative. They are all irregular, and will be seen in the list of the irregular verbs. In this place, their signification is to be briefly explained.

Ich mag, I may. Infinitive, mögen. The English verb, *May*, denotes the potential mood. The German signi-

fies, 1) being permitted, being at liberty to do a thing: as, Er mag lachen, er mag weinen, ich verbiete es ihm nicht, he may laugh, he may cry, I do not forbid it him. 2) Chance, or possibility, especially in the preterimperfect of the subjunctive mood: as, Es möchte ſich ereignen, it might happen; es möchte regnen, it might rain. 3) A wish, or desire, particularly in the present, and preterimperfect, of the subjunctive: as, Möge er lange leben, may he live long! möge es der Himmel geben, may heaven grant it! Ich möchte wohl etwas davon haben, I should like to have some part of it. 4) To be able; Latin, *valere*: as, Wer mag deine Wunder erzählen! who can recount thy wonders! In this sense, the compound, Vermögen, is chiefly used. And lastly, 5) To like. Here it is connected with the infinitive: as, Ich mag es nicht thun, I do not like to do it! and also with an accusative case, like a transitive verb: as, Ich mag das nicht, I do not like that. In this signification, it is frequently applied to what is eaten, or drunk. For example: Mögen Sie Sauerkraut? do you like sour krout? Nein, ich mag es nicht, no, I do not like it. Ich mag dieſen Wein nicht, I do not like this wine. Ich mag nichts mehr, I do not like any more. In such phrases, an infinitive may be supplied, viz. eſſen, to eat, or trinken, to drink; and the construction, with the accusative, considered as elliptical.

Ich will, I will. Infinitive wollen. This answers to the Latin *velle*, and the French *vouloir*; and implies a future event, so far as it proceeds from will, and inclination. For example: Wollen Sie ſpatzieren gehen? will you take a walk? that means, Is it your will, or inclination, to take a walk? Ich will leſen, I will read; the same as,

It is my will, or my inclination, to read. Er will fliegen und hat keine Flügel, he wishes to fly, and has no wings. The idea of purpose, and inclination always accompanies this verb: it is not employed, as in English, to denote mere futurity, for which werden is exclusively appropriated.

Ich ſoll, I shall. Infinitive, ſollen. The English *Shall* may be regarded as the literal translation of the German word, but it does not comprehend all its meanings. The verb *to be*, with the preposition *to* and the infinitive of another verb following, (as, *I am to see, we are to go*), answers to its significations more often than *shall*. The German verb denotes: 1) To be obliged, by necessity, or duty. It may then, as occasion requires, be rendered by *shall*, *must*, *ought*, *am to*; in French, by *falloir*, *devoir*. For example: Du ſollſt das thun, thou shalt do that, thou art to do that, thou must do that; *il faut*. Sie ſollen ſchreiben, you are to write: *il faut écrire*. 2) To be bid, to be commissioned. Ich ſoll dahin gehen, I am to go there. 3) To be authorized, to be suffered, to be permitted. Soll ich es haben? am I to have it, may I have it? Soll ich es thun, oder nicht? am I to do it, or not? may I do it, or not? 4) To be admitted, to be supposed. Sie ſollen mich nicht beleidigt haben, you are supposed not to have offended me; er ſoll ſeinen Satz erwieſen haben, he is admitted to have proved his position. These subsequent significations have all a connexion with the first, and original one, which implies an obligation. That obligation is sometimes so involved, that it is difficult to recognise it: for example, in the two last significations mentioned, where we must imagine an obligation,

springing from the will of another, to which we submit. It is still more so, when the verb means 5) To be said, to be reported: as, Der König ſoll angekommen ſeyn, the king is said to be arrived. Die Franzöſiſche Flotte ſoll geſchlagen worden ſeyn, the French fleet is said to have been beaten. Es ſoll ſich zugetragen haben, it is said to have happened. If compulsion, or obligation, be the primary notion, to be combined with ſollen, it may perhaps be represented as a kind of necessity, that a thing has happened in such a manner, and not otherwise: we may conceive a sort of limitation, or restriction, with regard to the fact, that has happened; as if we were to say, people *will have it*, that this has happened. In the expression *will have it*, something of constraint may be perceived: for where *the will* of any person is in operation, it produces a compulsion, or obligation, in reference to others. These primary notions, however, are obliterated: and we now content onrselves with the significations, as they are in use.* The formation of the future tense, by the verb *Shall*, in English, and by similar verbs in other languages, such as the Swedish, Danish, and Dutch, may be analysed, and traced, in a similar manner. Thus ſoll occurs in old German; and even in the modern language, that is, in High German, vestiges

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* The signification, just mentioned, *to be said*, *to be reported*, is found in the Swedish verb *skola*, the Danish *skulle*, and the Dutch *zullen*, all of which answer to the German ſollen. See the Grammars, and Dictionaries of those languages.

of it remain in some phrases, and expressions. It is common in a conditional future, which is very frequently employed. For example: Wenn er kommen ſollte, if he should come; wenn das ſo ſeyn ſollte, if that should be so. Sollte ſich das Wetter ändern, ſo wollen wir ausgehen, should the weather change, we will go out.—Sollen is often used with an ellipsis, when the infinitive of some other verb is to be supplied. In this way several phrases are to be explained. For example; Was ſoll ich, what shall I?—supply thun, do, what shall I do, what am I to do, what would you with me, what do you want of me? Thus, Was ſollſt du? was ſoll er? was ſoll ſie? was ſollen wir, was ſollt ihr, was ſollen ſie? what art thou to do, what art thou wanted for, what is he to do, or what is he wanted for, &c. Was ſoll das, what shall that—supply ſeyn, be, what shall that be, what does it tend to, what does that mean? This is sometimes fully expressed by, Was ſoll das heiſſen, what is that to mean, what is the meaning of that, what do you mean by that? From that elliptical mode of speaking, the following significations may be assigned to ſollen: *a*) To mean. Examples: Was ſollen die ſieben Lämmer, what mean the seven lambs? Was ſoll das Geſchwätz, what means that talk? Was ſollen dieſe Kränze, what mean these wreaths? Was ſoll aber dieſer, but what means this man? In all these phrases, the infinitive ſeyn, or in the last thun, may be understood. *b*) To be intended. Ex. Sie ſollen alle für mein Haus, they are all intended for my house. Wem ſoll denn dieſer Strauß, for whom is this nosegay intended? Seyn, to be, may here again be understood. *c*) To tend to, to serve some purpose, to be of a certain use, to be good for. Ex. Wozu ſoll dieſe Er-

niedrigung, what purpose does this humiliation serve, what does it tend to, of what use is it? Was ſoll mir die Erſtgeburt, of what use is primogeniture to me? Was ſoll mir das Geld, what is the use of the money?—It may be lastly observed, that sometimes the English words, *may*, *can*, *will*, or in the preterimperfect, *might*, *could*, *would*, will aptly render the German phrases, in which ſollen occurs.

Ich kann, I can. Infinitive, können. It signifies 1) To be able. Lat. *posse*, Fr. *pouvoir*. 2) To be permitted, to have the liberty to do a thing. Thus it stands frequently, where the English put *may*. For example: Sie können das thun, wenn Sie wollen, you may do that, if you like. Indeed, it is more usual to express that idea by the verb können, than by mögen. The infinitive, which generally follows after können, is sometimes left out: as, Gott kann alles was er will, God can do all he willeth, supply thun, do. Hence 3) the significations, *to have got by heart*, *to be able to say*; and *to know*, *to understand*, may be explained, though in ancient German, the verb seems really to have signified *to know*, *(savoir)*, as the old English *to can*.* Examples: Der Knabe kann ſeine Aufgabe, the boy can say his lesson, knows his lesson by

* In the Scotch idiom, the word *to can* is still found, for ex. "What we first learn, we best *can*," *i. e.* what we first learn, we know best. See Ramsay's Scots Proverbs, Ch. XI. "Other prayer *can* I none," *i. e.* I know no other prayer. Walter Scott's Lay of the Last Minstrel, Canto II. St. 6.

heart; er kann ſchöne Lieder, he knows pretty songs, he can sing pretty songs. Here the infinitives ſagen, ſingen, to say, to sing, may be understood. Können Sie Deutſch, do you know German? Er kann Griechiſch, he knows Greek. In such instances, leſen, to read, ſprechen, to speak, verſtehen, to understand, or similar infinitives, may be supplied.

Ich darf, I dare. Infinitive, dürfen. This verb signifies 1) To dare, to venture. 2) To be allowed, not to be restrained, answering to *may, dare.* For example: Darf ich fragen, may I ask? Sie dürfen es wiſſen, you may know it. With the negative, it is to be rendered, by *may not, must not, dare not.* 3) Frequently, the English verb *need* expresses it. 4) The preterimperfect potential, dürfte denotes a probable contingency, and may be translated by *might, may, need, should, would,* as is most suitable. For example: Es dürfte vielleicht wahr ſeyn, it might perhaps be true; es dürfte alsdann nicht nothwendiger Weiſe der Fall ſeyn, it need not, then, necessarily be the case. In these instances, it has the infinitive after it. When it occurs without an infinitive, it is by ellipsis, so that some infinitive is to be understood. Ex: Er darf alles was er kann, he dares to do all he is able, where thun, to do, may be supplied. Er darf nicht in das Haus, he dares not, or may not, come into the house, where kommen, to come, is understood.—It has sometimes the genitive, or accusative, after it, signifying to want, to need, to be in need of; but this signification is obsolete.

Ich muß, I must. Infinitive, müſſen. It coincides pretty exactly with the English *Must;* now and then, it is to be rendered by *ought;* and not unfrequently the terms,

to be obliged, am to, art to, is to, are to, answer to the signification. With the negative, it occasionally expresses, *need not.* Sometimes, it has a mere potential meaning, and is to be translated by *may.* It occurs elliptically, when some infinitive is understood as, Ich muß zurück, understand gehen, I must *(go)* back.

Ich laſſe, I let. Infinitive, laſſen, to let, to suffer. It also means *to leave; and to leave off.* It farther signifies *to get, to procure to be, to cause:* as, Ein Haus bauen laſſen, to get a house built; einen Rock machen laſſen, to get a coat made. When combined with the third reciprocal pronoun, it seems often equivalent to the English *may,* or *is to be:* as, Das läßt ſich nicht thun, that is not to be done; davon ließe ſich vieles ſagen, of that much might be said; daß läßt ſich nicht begreiffen, that is not to be comprehended. As an auxiliary to the imperative, the Germans use it only for the first person plural, of that mood.*

2. In English, the auxiliary, *to Be,* is joined with the participle present, to form what is called *the definite,* or *determined, time* :† as, *I am (now) writing, I was (then) loving.* Such a combination is foreign to the German language, in which the definite time is not distinguished, from the others. Ich ſchreibe, stands for I write, and I am writing; ich ſchrieb, for I wrote, and I was writing.

3. Another peculiarity of the English tongue consists

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* See p. 260, note.

† See Lowth's English Grammar, p. 63.

in the verb *Do*, employed to express the present, and past imperfect, of the verb active, and neuter, marking the action, or time, with greater force, and distinction: as, *I do love thee.* It is also of frequent, and almost necessary, use, in interrogative and negative sentences.* This mode of expression is not quite unknown to the Germans: for it is, in some provinces, to be met with among the lower people: as, Ich that lieben, I did love; thun Sie ihm ſchreiben, do write to him; but it is utterly banished from the general, and classical language.

SECTION II.

CONJUGATION OF REGULAR VERBS.

THERE is but one conjugation of the Regular Verb, of which the following is a representation, in the Active Voice:

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1 person, *e*, as: Ich Lobe, I praise.	1 person, *e.*
2 person, *est*, or *st.*	2 ——— *est.*
3 ——— *et*, or *t.*	3 ——— *e.*

* See Lowth, p. 64.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1 person, *en.*	1 ——— *en.*
2 ——— *et*, or *t.*	2 ——— *et.*
3 ——— *en*,	3 ——— *en.*

Preterimperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1 ——— *ete*, or *te.*	1 ——— *ete.*
2 ——— *etest*, or *test.*	2 ——— *etest.*
3 ——— *ete*, or *te.*	3 ——— *ete.*
Plural.	*Plural.*
1 ——— *eten*, or *ten*,	1 ——— *eten.*
2 ——— *etet*, or *tet.*	2 ——— *etet.*
3 ——— *eten*, or *ten.*	3 ——— *eten.*

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	1 ——— *en.*
2 ——— *e.*	2 ——— *et*, or *t.*
3 ——— *e.*	3 ——— *en.*

INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLES.
Present, *en.*	Present, *end.*
	Preterite, *ge-et*, or *g-t.*

General Rules.

I. The other tenses are compounded with auxiliaries; namely, the preterperfect, and pluperfect, with haben, (or, if the verb be a neuter, of a particular description, with Seyn,) and the preterite participle: the futures with Werden, and the infinitive.

II. The first and third persons plural, of the present tense, are always like the infinitive, and vice versâ.—The first and third singular, and the first and third plural, of the preterimperfect, are respectively alike. This applies to all verbs, both regular and irregular.

III. The preterite participle has everywhere the syllable *ge* prefixed to it, except in verbs compound inseparable, and some others, which make the infinitive in *ieren*, or *iren:* as Regieren, to govern; handthieren, to handle; haſelieren, to jest; ſpatzieren, to walk; ſtolzieren, to be proud; buchſtabieren, to spell; barbiren, to shave; rebelliren, to rebel; marſchiren, to march; proteſtiren, to protest; variiren, to vary; copiren, to copy.

IV. The radical vowels of regular verbs are never changed. If, for instance, fragen, to ask, be considered as a regular, it is not correct to make the second and third person sing. pres. indic. frägſt, frägt, transforming the vowel a into the diphthong ä.

V. The *e* before *st*, in the second pers. sing. pres. ind.; before *t*, in the third pers. sing. and second pers. plural:

likewise before *t*, throughout the pret. imp., and before the same letter in the pret. partic. is commonly thrown out, when from such an abridgement no harshness arises, in the pronunciation. But it must be observed, that this is only allowable in the indicative mood; and would be improper in the subjunctive.

VI. In verbs that have the letters *l*, or *r*, in the last syllable, the *e* of inflection, after those letters, if it be not itself the last letter, is always omitted, even in the infinitive: as, Sammeln, to collect, for ſammelen; dauern, to last, for daueren. Sometimes the *e*, before *l* and *r*, is cast away: as, Ich ſammle, I collect, for ſammele, du ſammleſt, thou collectest, for ſammelſt, (ſammeleſt); er ſammlet, for ſammelt. Es dauret, it lasts, for es dauert. However, this mode of contraction is neither so regular, nor so much in use, as the former.

VII. The Passive Voice is universally formed by means of Werden, the third auxiliary.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Loben, to praise.

Lobe, pres.; lobete, or lobte, pret. imperf.; gelobet, or gelobt, pret. part.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present Tense.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich lobe, I praise.	1. Ich lobe, (if) I praise.
2. Du lobeſt, or lobſt, thou praisest.	2. Du lobeſt, (if) thou praise.
3. Er lobet, or lobt, he praises.	3. Er lobe, (if) he praise.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir loben, we praise.	1. Wir loben, we praise.
2. Ihr lobet, or lobt, you praise.	2. Ihr lobet, you praise.
3. Sie loben, they praise.	3. Sie loben, they praise.

Preterimperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich lobte, I praised.	1. Ich lobete, (if) I praised.
2. Du lobteſt, thou praisedst.	2. Du lobeteſt, (if) thou praised.
3. Er lobte, he praised.	3. Er lobete, he praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir lobten, we praised.	1. Wir lobeten, we praised.
2. Ihr lobtet, you praised.	2. Ihr lobetet, you praised.
3. Sie lobten, they praised.	3. Sie lobeten, they praised.

Preterperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich habe gelobt, I have praised.	1. Ich habe gelobt, (if) I have praised.
2. Du haſt gelobt, thou hast praised.	2. Du habeſt gelobt, (if) thou have praised.
3. Er hat gelobt, he has praised.	3. Er habe gelobt, (if) he have praised.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir haben gelobt, we have praised.	1. Wir haben gelobt, we have praised.
2. Ihr habt gelobt, you have praised.	2. Ihr habet gelobt, you have praised.
3. Sie haben gelobt, they have praised.	3. Sie haben gelobt, they have praised.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich hatte gelobt, I had praised.	1. Ich hätte gelobt, (if) I had praised.
2. Du hatteſt gelobt, thou hadst praised.	2. Du hätteſt gelobt, (if) thou had praised.
3. Er hatte gelobt, he had praised.	3. Er hätte gelobt, he had praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir hatten gelobt, we had praised.	1. Wir hätten gelobt, we had praised.
2. Ihr hattet gelobt, you had praised.	2. Ihr hättet gelobt, you had praised.
3. Sie hatten gelobt, they had praised.	3. Sie hätten gelobt, they had praised.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde loben, I shall praise.	1. Ich werde loben, (if) I shall praise.
2. Du wirſt loben, thou shalt, or wilt, praise.	2. Du werdeſt loben, thou shalt praise.
3. Er wird loben, he shall, or will, praise.	3. Er werde loben, he shall praise.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden loben, you shall praise.	1. Wir werden loben, we shall praise.
2. Ihr werdet loben, you shall, or will, praise.	2. Ihr werdet loben, you shall praise.
3. Sie werden loben, they shall, or will, praise.	3. Sie werden loben, they shall praise.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gelobt haben, I shall have praised.	1. Ich werde gelobt haben, (if) I shall have praised.
2. Du wirſt gelobt haben, thou shalt, or wilt, have praised, &c.	2. Du werdeſt gelobt haben, (if) thou shalt have praised, &c.

First future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde loben, I should, or would, praise.
2. Du würdeſt loben, thou shouldst, or wouldst, praise.
3. Er würde loben, he should, or would, praise.

Plural.

1. Wir würden loben, we should, or would, praise.
2. Ihr würdet loben, you should, or would, praise.
3. Sie würden loben, they should, or would, praise.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gelobt haben, I should, or would, have praised.
2. Du würdeſt gelobt haben, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have praised, &c.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Loben wir, let us praise.)
2. Lobe (du), praise, (thou).	2. Lobet, or lobt (ihr), praise (you).
3. Lobe er, praise he, or let him praise.	3. Loben ſie, praise they, or let them praise.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. Loben, to praise.
Pret. imperf. Gelobt haben, to have praised.
Future. Loben werden, to be about to praise.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Lobend, praising.
Preterit, Gelobet, or gelobt, praised.

PASSIVE VOICE.

Gelobt werden, to be praised.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gelobt, I am praised.	1. Ich werde gelobt, (if) I be praised.
2. Du wirſt gelobt, thou art praised.	2. Du werdeſt gelobt, (if) thou be praised.
3. Er wird gelobt, he is praised.	3. Er werde gelobt, (if) he be praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden gelobt, we are praised.	1. Wir werden gelobt, (if) we be praised.
2. Ihr werdet gelobt, you are praised.	2. Ihr werdet gelobt, (if) you be praised.
3. Sie werden gelobt, they are praised.	3. Sie werden gelobt, (if) they be praised.
Preterimperfect.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich wurde (or ward)* gelobt, I was praised.	1. Ich würde gelobt, (if) I were praised.
2. Du wurdeſt (or wardſt), gelobt, thou wast praised.	2. Du würdeſt gelobt, (if) thou wert praised.
3. Er wurde (or ward) gelobt, he was praised.	3. Er würde gelobt, (if) he were praised.

* See note to page 266.

INDICATIVE.

Plural.

1. Wir wurden gelobt, we were praised.
2. Ihr wurdet gelobt, you were praised.
3. Sie wurden gelobt, they were praised.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Plural

1. Wir würden gelobt, we were praised.
2. Ihr würdet gelobt, you were praised.
3. Sie würden gelobt, they were praised.

Preterperfect.

Singular.

1. Ich bin gelobt worden, I have been praised.
2. Du bist gelobt worden, thou hast been praised.
3. Er ist gelobt worden, he has been praised.

Singular.

1. Ich sey gelobt worden, (if) I have been praised.
2. Du seyest gelobt worden, (if) thou have been praised.
3. Er sey gelobt worden, (if) he have been praised.

Plural.

1. Wir sind gelobt worden, we have been praised.
2. Ihr seyd gelobt worden, you have been praised.
3. Sie sind gelobt worden, they have been praised.

Plural.

1. Wir seyen gelobt worden, we have been praised.
2. Ihr seyed gelobt worden, you have been praised.
3. Sie seyen gelobt worden, they have been praised.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.

1. Ich war gelobt worden, I had been praised.
2. Du warest gelobt worden, thou hadst been praised, &c.

Singular.

1. Ich wäre gelobt worden, (if) I had been praised.
2. Du wärest gelobt worden, (if) thou had been praised, &c.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

First Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gelobt werden, I shall be praised.	1. Ich werde gelobt werden, (if) I shall be praised.
2. Du wirſt gelobt werden, thou shalt, or wilt, be praised.	2. Du werdeſt gelobt werden, thou shalt be praised.
3. Er wird gelobt werden, he shall, or will, be praised.	3. Er werde gelobt werden, he shall be praised.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir werden gelobt werden, we shall be praised.	1. Wir werden gelobt werden, we shall be praised.
2. Ihr werdet gelobt werden, you shall, or will, be praised.	2. Ihr werdet gelobt werden, you shall be praised.
3. Sie werden gelobt werden, they shall, or will, be praised.	3. Sie werden gelobt werden, they shall be praised.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde gelobt worden ſeyn, I shall have been praised.	1. Ich werde gelobt worden ſeyn, (if) I shall have been praised.
2. Du wirſt gelobt werden ſeyn, thou shalt, or wilt, have been praised, &c.	2. Du werdeſt gelobt worden ſeyn, thou shalt have been praised.

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gelobt werden, I should be praised.
2. Du würdeſt gelobt werden, thou shouldst, or wouldst, be praised.
3. Er würde gelobt werden, he should, or would, be praised.

Plural.

1. Wir würden gelobt werden, we should, or would, be praised.
2. Ihr würdet gelobt werden, you should, or would, be praised.
3. Sie würden gelobt werden, they should, or would, be praised.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde gelobt worden ſeyn, I should have been praised.
2. Du würdeſt gelobt worden ſeyn, thou shouldst, or wouldst, have been praised, &c.

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Werden wir gelobt, let us be praised).
2. Werde (du) gelobt, be thou praised.	2. Werdet (ihr) gelobt, be you praised.
3. Werde er gelobt, be he praised, or let him be praised.	3. Werden ſie gelobt, be they praised, or let them be praised.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Gelobt werden, to be praised.
Pret. perf. Gelobt worden ſeyn, to have been praised.
Fut. Werden gelobt werden, to be about to be praised.

Note.—In the conjugation of the passive voice, the participle worden, of the auxiliary, is used, in preference to geworden, because the latter, when joined with the preterite participle of another verb, would most frequently cause a disagreeable repetition of the syllable ge.—Sometimes, worden is omitted in the past tenses, as, Ich bin gelobt, for gelobt worden, &c: but it should be put, whenever those times are to be pointedly, or distinctly, expressed.

SECTION III.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

THESE verbs deviate, for the most part, in the preterimperfect tense, and the preterite participle. Some differ in the present tense, and several in the imperative mood.

The number of irregular verbs amounts, at present, to upwards of two hundred. Formerly, it was more considerable; but it has decreased with the progressive cultivation of the language. Several verbs, which, at an earlier period, had an anomalous form, are now inflected according to the common standard of conjugation. There are others, of which, even at this day, the irregular inflection is usual, though, at the same time, they may, without offence, be conjugated in a regular manner. In the following list, those, whose irregular character is become obsolete, will be marked by a double star (**); and those which are, in the present age, varied in both ways, with a single star (*). The latter, it is possible, may, like the former, by degress, be divested of their irregular shape; and new attempts of regularity may perhaps be made upon others. For such is the nature of the human mind, that it seeks correspondence and uniformity, by which its operations are facilitated.

AN ALPHABETICAL LIST OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
B				
*Backen, to bake.	2. bäckſt, 3. bäckt,		buck,	gebacken.
Bedingen, to bargain, to make conditions.			bedung,	bedungen.
Befehlen, to command.	2. befiehlſt, 3. befiehlt,	befiehl,	befahl (or befohl),	befohlen.
Befleiſſen (ſich, reflective) to apply one's self.			befliß,	befliſſen.
Beginnen, to begin.			begann,	begonnen.
Beiſſen, to bite.			biß,	gebiſſen.
**Bellen, to bark.	2. billſt, 3. billt,	bill,	boll,	gebollen.
Bergen, to conceal.	2. birgſt, 3. birgt,	birg,	barg,	geborgen.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Berſten, to burst.	2. birſteſt, 3. birſt, (or birſtet),	birſt,	borſt,	geborſten.
Beſinnen (ſich, reflective) to recollect.			beſann,	beſonnen.
Beſitzen, to possess.			beſaß,	beſeſſen.
Betriegen, or betrügen, to cheat, to deceive.			betrog,	betrogen.
Bewegen, to move, to induce, to persuade.†			bewog,	bewogen.
Biegen, to bend.			bog,	gebogen.
Bieten (or biethen,) to bid.			bot (or both),	geboten (or gebothen.)
Binden, to bind.			band,	gebunden.
Bitten, to beg.			bat,	gebeten.
Blaſen, to blow.	1. bläſeſt, 3. bläſt (or bläſet),		blies,	geblaſen.

† The verb is inflicted regularly, when it simply expresses, to put in motion; and when it signifies, to affect, to touch pathetically.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect	Preterite Participle.
Bleiben, to remain.			blieb,	geblieben.
*Bleichen, to bleach, to whiten.			blich,	geblichen.
*Braten, to roast.	2. brätſt, 3. brät.		briet,	gebraten.
Brechen, to break.	2. brichſt, 3. bricht,	brich,	brach,	gebrochen.
*Brennen, to burn.			brannte,	gebrannt.
Bringen, to bring.			brachte,	gebracht.
D				
Denken, to think.			dachte,	gedacht.
*Dingen, to bargain; also, to hire.			dung,	gedungen.
Dreſchen, to thrash.	2. driſcheſt, 3. driſcht,	driſch,	draſch,	gedroſchen.
Dringen, to urge.			drang,	gedrungen.
Dürfen, to dare.†	1. darf, 2. darfſt, 3. darf,		durfte,	gedurft.

† Herder writes dörfen, for dürfen; and dörfte, for dürfte: for what reason, I know not. See Ideen der Philoſophie der Geſchichte der Menſchheit, vol. 2. p. 3. and Zerſtreute Blätter, Vol. 1, p. 344.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
E				
Empfangen, to receive.	2. empfängſt, 3. empfängt,		empfing,	empfangen.
Empfehlen, to recommend.	2. empfiehlſt, 3. empfiehlt,	empfiehl,	empfahl (or empfohl),	empfohlen.
Empfinden, to feel, to perceive.			empfand,	empfunden.
Entrinnen, to escape, to run away.			entrann,	entronnen.
Erbleichen, to grow pale.			erblich,	erblichen.
Ergreiffen, to seize.			ergriff,	ergriffen.
Erküren, or erkühren, to choose.			erkor, or erkohr,	erkoren, or erkohren.
Erlöſchen, to be extinguished, to become extinct.	2. erliſcheſt, 3. erliſcht (or erliſchet),	erliſch,	erloſch,	erloſchen.
*Erſchallen, to resound.			erſcholl,	erſchollen.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Erſchrecken, to be frightened.	2. erſchrickſt (or erſchrickeſt), 3. erſchrickt (or erſchricket),	erſchrick,	erſchrak,	erſchrocken.
Erwägen, to weigh, to consider.			erwog,	erwogen.
Eſſen, to eat.	2. iſſeſt, 3. ißt (or iſſet),		aß,	gegeſſen.
F				
Fahren, to drive a carriage; also to go in a carriage.	2. fährſt, 3. fährt,		fuhr,	gefahren.
Fallen, to fall.	2. fällſt, 3. fällt,		fiel,	gefallen.
*Falten, to fold.†	2. fältſt, 3. fält.		[fielt],	gefalten.
Fangen, to catch.	2. fängſt, 3. fängt.		fing,	gefangen.

† This verb it would be preferable to conjugate regularly throughout, were it not for the preterite participle, which almost invariably appears in the irregular form. The imperfect, fielt, is entirely obsolete.

Infinitive	Present Indicative,	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Fechten, to fence; also, to fight.	2. ficheſt (or ſichtſt), 3. ficht,	ſicht (or fechte),	focht,	gefochten.
Finden, to find.			fand,	gefunden.
*Flechten, to plait, to twist.	2. flichteſt, 3. flicht.	flicht (or flechte),	flocht,	geflochten.
Fliegen, to fly, to move with wings.			flog,	geflogen.
Fliehen, to fly, to run away.			floh,	geflohen.
Flieſſen, to flow.			floß,	gefloſſen.
*Fragen, to ask.	2. frägſt, 3. frägt,		frug,	gefragt.
Freſſen, to eat; applied to the brute creation.	2. friſſeſt, 3. frißt,	friß,	fraß,	gefreſſen.
Frieren, to freeze.			fror,	gefroren.
G				
Gähren, to ferment.			gohr,	gegohren.
Gebähren, or gebären, to bring forth.			gebahr,	gebohren, or geboren.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preter Imperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Geben, to give.	2. gibſt, 3. gibt. (2.giebſt,3.giebt.†)	gib, (or gieb,	gab,	gegeben.
Gebieten, (or gebiethen), to command.			gebot, (orgeboth),	geboten, (or gebothen.)
*Gedeihen, to prosper.			gedieh,	gediehen.
Gefallen, to please.	2. gefällſt, 3. gefällt,		gefiel,	gefallen.
Gehen, to walk; also to go			ging,	gegangen.
Gelingen, to succeed, to turn out according to wish (used only in the third pers. sing. and plur.			gelang,	gelungen.
Gelten, to be estimated; also to cost.	2. giltſt, or gilteſt, 3. gilt.		galt,	gegolten.
Geneſen, to recover from illness.			genaß,	geneſen.
Genieſſen, to enjoy.			genoß,	genoſſen.

† The right way of spelling, and pronouncing, is, gibſt, gibt. Imperative, gib. See Adelung's Orthography, p. 225. But giebſt, giebt, gieb, are nevertheless frequently written, though less often spoken.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Gerathen, to get into, to fall into; to hit upon, to fall upon.	2. geräthſt, 3. geräth.		gerieth,	gerathen.
Geſchehen, to happen, to be done, to come to pass.†	2. geſchieh, 3. geſchieht,		geſchah,	geſchehen.
Gewinnen, to win, to gain.			gewann,	gewonnen.
Gieſſen, to pour.			goß,	gegoſſen.
Gleichen, to be like, to resemble.			glich,	geglichen.
*Gleiten, to glide.			glitt,	geglitten.
*Glimmen, to shine, or burn, faintly.			glomm,	geglommen,
Graben, to dig.	2. gräbſt, 3. gräbt,		grub,	gegraben,
Greiffen, or Greifen, to seize, to lay hold of.			griff,	gegriffen.
H				
Halten, to hold.	2. häldſt, 3. hält.		hielt,	gehalten.

† It is only used in the third person, and never joined with an infinitive, as the English *to happen*; for ex. *he happened to see me*, which mode of construction is unknown to the Germans.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Hangen, to hang, to be suspended, v. neut.†	2.hängſt, 3. hängt,		hing,	gehangen.
*Hauen, to cut, to hew.			hieb,	gehauen.
Heben, to heave, to lift.			hob,	gehoben.
Heiſſen, to bid, to name; to be named.	2.heiſſeſt (orheißt), 3.heißt(orheiſſet)‡		hieß,	geheiſſen.
Helfen, to help.	2. hilfſt, 3. hilft,	hilf,	half,	geholfen.
J (consonant).				
**Jagen, to drive, to chase.			jug,	gejagen.
K				
Keiffen, to chide, to scold.			kiff,	gekiffen.
Kennen, to know, to be acquainted with.§			kannte,	gekannt.

† The transitive verb, to hang, to suspend, is hängen, for which hangen, is sometimes mistaken.

‡ See Adelung's Orthography, p. 287.

§ It is the French *connoître*, which is applied to the knowledge that we have of persons, or the exterior form of things, but does not express the abstracted act of knowing.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Klingen, to sound, to ring.			klang,	geklungen.
Kneiffen, to pinch.			kniff,	gekniffen.
Kneipen, to pinch.			knipp,	geknippen.
Kommen, to come.	2. kömmſt (or kommſt), 3. kömmt (or kommt),		kam,	gekommen.
Können, to be able.	1. kann, 2. kannſt, 3. kann,		konnte,	gekonnt,
Kreiſchen, to scream.			kriſch,	gekriſchen.
*Kreiſſen, to be in labour.			kriß,	gekriſſen.
Kriechen, to creep.			kroch,	gekrochen.
L				
*Laden, to load.	2. lädſt, 3. lädt.		lud,	geladen.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Laſſen, to let, to permit; also, to leave.	2. läſſeſt, (or läßt), 3. läßt (or läſſet),†		ließ,	gelaſſen.
Laufen, to run.	2. läufſt, 3. läuft,		lief,	gelaufen.
Leiden, to suffer.			litt,	gelitten.
Leihen, to lend.			lieh,	geliehen.
Leſen, to read.	2. lieſeſt (or ließt), 3. lieſt,	ließ,	las,	geleſen.
Liegen, to lie, to rest horizontally; also to be situated.			lag,	gelegen.
**Löſchen, to extinguish; to be extinguished.	2. liſcheſt, 3. liſcht,	liſch,	loſch,	geloſchen.
Lügen, to lie, to utter a falsehood.			log,	gelogen.
M				
Mahlen, to grind.‡				gemahlen.

† Adelung's Orthography, p. 239. See of the verb itself, above, p. 279.
‡ Mahlen, to paint, is perfectly regular.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Meiden, to avoid, to shun.			mied,	gemieden.
*Melken, to milk.			molk,	gemolken.
Meſſen, to measure.	2. miſſeſt, 3. mißt,	miß,	maß,	gemeſſen.
Mißfallen, to displease.	2. mißfällſt, 3. mißfällt.		mißfiel,	mißfallen.
Mögen, to be allowed; to be able.†	1. mag, 2. magſt, 3. mag,		mochte,	gemocht.
Müſſen, to be obliged, to be forced.‡	1. muß, 2. mußt, 3 muß.		mußte,	gemußt.
N				
Nehmen, to take.	2. nimmſt, 3. nimmt.	nimm,	nahm,	genommen.
*Nennen, to name.			nannte,	genannt.
P				
Pfeiffen, to whistle.			pfiff,	gepfiffen.

† See the observations on the auxiliary verbs. Sect. 1. p. 272.
‡ See sect. 1. p. 278.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
*Pflegen, to foster, to cherish.†			pflog,	gepflogen.
Preiſen, to extol, to praise.			pries,	geprieſen.
Q				
Quellen, to spring forth (of fluids).	2. quillſt, 3. quillt,	quill,	quoll,	gequollen.
R				
**Rächen, to avenge.			roch,	gerochen.
Rathen, to advise; also to guess.	2. räthſt, 3. räth.		rieth,	gerathen.
Reiben, to rub.			rieb,	gerieben.
Reiſſen, to tear.			riß,	geriſſen.
Reiten, to ride (on horseback).			ritt,	geritten.
*Rennen, to run with great velocity, to rush.			rannte,	gerannt.

† Pflegen, to be accustomed, to be wont, is always regular.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Riechen, to smell.			roch,	gerochen.
Ringen, to wrestle.			rang,	gerungen.
Rinnen, to run, (of fluids), to leak; also to coagulate.			rann,	geronnen.
Rufen, to call, to halloo.			rief,	gerufen.
S				
**Salzen, to salt.†	[2. ſälzeſt, 3. ſälzt],		[ſielz,]	geſalzen.
Sauffen, or ſaufen, to drink, (applied to brutes.)			ſoff,	geſoffen.
Saugen, to suck.			ſog,	geſogen.
Schaffen, to create.‡			ſchuf,	geſchaffen.
**Schallen, to sound.			ſcholl,	geſchollen.

† The Preterite participle of this verb is very common; the other irregular parts are become obsolete.

‡ Schaffen, to prepare, to get, is regular.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Scheiden, to separate, to part.			ſchied,	geſchieden.
Scheinen, to shine; also, to seem, to appear.			ſchien,	geſchienen.
Schelten, to chide.	2. ſchiltſt, 3. ſchilt,	ſchilt,	ſchalt,	geſcholten.
Scheren, to shear.	2. ſchierſt, 3. ſchiert,	ſchier,	ſchor,	geſchoren.
Schieben, to shove.			ſchob,	geſchoben.
Schieſſen, to shoot.			ſchoß,	geſchoſſen.
Schinden, to flay.			ſchund,	geſchunden.
Schlafen, to sleep.	2. ſchläfſt, 3. ſchläft,		ſchlief,	geſchlafen.
Schlagen, to beat, to strike	2. ſchlägſt, 3. ſchlägt,		ſchlug,	geſchlagen.
Schleichen, to sneak.			ſchlich,	geſchlichen.
Schleiffen, or Schleifen, to grind, to sharpen, to polish.†			ſchliff,	geſchliffen.
Schliefen, to creep, to crawl.			ſchloff,	geſchloffen.
Schlieſſen, to shut, to lock; also, to conclude.			ſchloß,	geſchloſſen.
Schlingen, to twine, to sling; to devour.			ſchlang,	geſchlungen.

† Schleiffen, to drag along, to pull down, to demolish, is regular.

Infinitive	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Schmeiſſen, to fling.			ſchmiß,	geſchmiſſen.
Schmelzen, to melt.†	2. ſchmilzeſt, 3. ſchmilzt,	ſchmilz,	ſchmolz,	geſchmolzen.
Schnauben, to snort.			ſchnob,	geſchnoben.
Schneiden, to cut.			ſchnitt,	geſchnitten.
*Schrauben, to screw.			ſchrob,	geſchroben.
Schreiben, to write.			ſchrieb,	geſchrieben.
Schreien, to cry.			ſchrie,	geſchrien.
Schreiten, to stride.			ſchritt,	geſchritten.
Schwären, to fester.			ſchwor,	geſchworen.
Schweigen, to be silent.			ſchwieg,	geſchwiegen.
*Schwellen, to swell.	2. ſchwillſt,‡ 3. ſchwillt,	ſchwill,	ſchwoll,	geſchwollen.
Schwimmen, to swim.			ſchwamm,	geſchwommen.
Schwinden, to disappear.			ſchwand,	geſchwunden.
Schwingen, to swing.			ſchwang,	geſchwungen.

† It is generally irregular, when it is used as a verb neuter; but regular, when it has an active signification.

‡ Schwillſt, ſchwillt, ſchwill, are rather obsolete.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Schwören, to swear.			ſchwor, (or ſchwur,)	geſchworen.
Sehen, to see.	2. ſiehſt, 3. ſieht.	ſieh,	ſah (or ſahe†)	geſehen.
*Senden, to send.			ſandte,	geſandt.
Sieden, to boil, to seeth.			ſott,	geſotten.
Singen, to sing.			ſang,	geſungen.
Sinken, to sink.			ſank,	geſunken.
Sinnen, to think, to muse, to meditate.			ſann,	geſonnen.
Sitzen, to sit.			ſaß,	geſeſſen.
Sollen, to be compelled.‡	1. ſoll, 2. ſollſt, 3. ſoll.		ſollen,	geſollt.
*Spalten, to split.			[ſpielt],§	geſpalten.
Speien, to spit.			ſpie,	geſpien.
Spinnen, to spin.			ſpann,	geſponnen.

† Wieland sometimes writes ſahe, though more frequently ſah.
‡ See the observations on the auxiliary verb, sect. 1. p. 274.
§ Obsolete.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect	Preterite Participle.
Sprechen, to speak.	2. ſprichſt, 3. ſpricht,	ſprich,	ſprach,	geſprochen.
Sprieſſen, to sprout.			ſproß,	geſproſſen.
Springen, to spring, to leap.			ſprang,	geſprungen.
Stechen, to sting, to prick, to stick, to pierce.	ſtichſt, ſticht,	ſtich,	ſtach,	geſtochen.
Stehen, to stand.			ſtand[ſtund,]	geſtanden.
Stehlen, to steal.	2. ſtiehlſt, 3. ſtiehlt,	ſtiehl,	ſtahl (or ſtohl),	geſtohlen.
Steigen, to mount, to ascend.			ſtieg,	geſtiegen.
Sterben, to die, to lose life.	2. ſtirbſt, 3. ſtirbt,	ſtirb,	ſtarb,	geſtorben.
Stieben, to fly off with a jerk, or sudden spring.			ſtob,	geſtoben.
Stinken, to stink.			ſtank [ſtunk,]	geſtunken.
Stoßen, to push.	2. ſtößeſt, 3. ſtößt (or ſtößet),		ſtieß,	geſtoßen.
Streichen, to sweep, or rub along; to strike.			ſtrich,	geſtrichen.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative,	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle
Streiten, to contend; to quarrel; to combat.			ſtritt,	geſtritten.
T				
Tragen, to bear, to carry, to wear.	2. trägſt, (or trägeſt), 3. trägt, (or trägeт),		trug,	getragen.
Treffen, to hit, to touch the mark; also to meet with.	2. trifft, 3. trifft,	triff,	traf,	getroffen.
Treiben, to drive; also to exercise, to carry on.			trieb,	getrieben.
Treten, to tread.	2. trittſt, 3. tritt,	tritt.	trat,	getreten.
**Trieffen, or triefen, to drop, to distil.			troff,	getroffen.
Triegen, to deceive.			trog,	getrogen.
Trinken, to drink.			trank,	getrunken.
Trügen, the same as Triegen.				
Thun (or thuen), to do.	1. thue, 2. thuſt, 3. thut,	thue (or thu),	that,	gethan.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
V.†				
Verbergen, to conceal.	2. verbirgſt, 3. verbirgt.	verbirg,	verbarg,	verborgen.
Verbieten, to forbid.			verbot,	verboten.
Verbleichen, to change to a paler colour, to fade.			verblich,	verblichen.
Verbrennen, to burn, to consume with fire.			verbrannte,	verbrannt.
*Verderben, to spoil, to corrupt, to destroy.‡	2. verdirbſt, 3. verdirbt,	verdirb,	verdarb,	verdorben.
Verdrieſſen, to offend,§			verdroß,	verdroſſen.
Vergeſſen, to forget.	2. vergiſſeſt (or vergißt,) 3. vergißt (or vergiſſet),	vergiß,	vergaß,	vergeſſen.

† The verbs, beginning with Ver, are all compounds. Some of the simple verbs are to be found in this list, under their respective letters; but some are become obsolete.

‡ Wieland treats this verb as a regular conjugation.

§ It is only used in the third person.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Vergleichen, to compare.			verglich,	verglichen.
**Verhehlen, to conceal.			verhohl, (or verhahl),	verhohlen.
Verlaſſen, to leave, to quit, to desert.	2. verläſſeſt (or verläßt), 3. verläßt (or verläſſet),	verlaß,	verließ,	verlaſſen.
Verlieren, to lose.			verlor,	verloren,
Vermeiden, to avoid.			vermied,	vermieden.
Vermögen, to be able.	1. vermag, 2. vermagſt, 3. vermag,		vermochte,	vermocht.
Verſchlingen, to devour.			verſchlang,	verſchlungen.
Verſchwinden, to disappear.			verſchwand,	verſchwunden.
Verſtieben, to fly off, in consequence of a sudden impulse, or jerk.			verſtob,	verſtoben.
Vertreten, to sprain the foot by a false step; to spoil by the foot; also, to represent a person; and to intercede for.	2. vertrittſt, 3. vertritt,	vertritt,	vertrat,	vertreten.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative.	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
*Verwirren, to confuse, to perplex.			verworr,	verworren.
Verzeihen, to excuse, to pardon.			verzieh,	verziehen.
W.				
Wachſen, to grow, to vegetate, to increase in size.	2. wächſeſt (or wächſt), 3. wächſt,		wuchs,	gewachſen.
*Wägen, to weigh, to examine by the balance.			wog,	gewogen.
Waſchen, to wash.	2. wäſcheſt, 3. wäſcht,		wuſch,	gewaſchen.
**Weben, to weave.			wob,	gewoben.
Weichen, to yield, to give way.			wich,	gewichen.
Weiſen, to show, to point out.			wies,	gewieſen.
*Wenden, to turn.			wandte,	gewandt.
Werben, to sue, to apply for, to endeavour to obtain.	2. wirbſt, 3. wirbt,	wirb,	warb,	geworben.
Werfen, to throw.	2. wirfſt, 3. wirft,	wirf,	warf,	geworfen.
Wiegen, to weigh, to have weight.			wog,	gewogen.
Winden, to wind, to turn.			wand,	gewunden.

Infinitive.	Present Indicative.	Imperative	Preterimperfect.	Preterite Participle.
Wiſſen, to know.†	1. weiß, 2. weißt, ‡ 3. weiß,		wußte,	gewußt.
Wollen, to be willing, to wish.	1. will, 2. willſt [or willt], 3 will.§		wollte,	gewollt.
3.				
Zeihen, to accuse of.			zieh,	geziehen.
Zerſtieben, to be suddenly scattered.‖			zerſtob,	zerſtoben.
Ziehen, to draw, to pull.			zog,	gezogen.
Zwingen, to force, to compel, to constrain.			zwang,	gezwungen.

† It signifies, to know abstractedly, Latin, *scire*, French, *savoir*.

‡ This is a contraction from weiſſeſt. See Adelung's Orthography, p. 289.

§ The irregularity of this verb consists only in the siugular number of the present tense; all the remainder follows the regular conjugation.

‖ This is a compound verb; see ſtieben. Other verbs, beginning with Zer, must be looked for, in this list, under their simples.

Observations.

1. The preceding List exhibits the Irregular Verbs in those parts, which deviate from the rule: in all the rest, they conform to the regular mode of inflection. Let it be observed, that the first person plural, of the present tense, is always like the infinitive, and that thence the conjugation proceeds regularly: the infinitive, indeed, may be considered as the root of the regular parts of the verb. Of the preterimperfect, the third person singular is constantly the same with the first, and the other persons follow, in their terminations, the example of the regular verb. Where the imperative is not marked, as irregular, it may be supposed, that it is to be made of the infinitive, by cutting off the final *n*, or sometimes *en*.

2. The preterimperfect takes, in the subjunctive mood, an *e* at the end: that is to say, when it terminates with a consonant, in the indicative, an *e* must be added. Moreover, the vowels a, o, u, are, in the subjunctive, changed into the diphthongs, ä, ö, ü. For example: Ich bat, I begged, subjunct. bäte; ich hob, I lifted up, subj. höbe; ich trug, I bore, or carried, subj. trüge.—Some verbs assume a different vowel, instead of a diphthong: as, Ich kannte, I knew, subj. kennete; ich nannte, I named, subj. nennete; ich rannte, I rushed, subj. rennete. Others have a diphthong, but not that which corresponds with the vowel, in the indicative. Of this kind are, Ich befahl, from befehlen, subj. beföhle; begann, from beginnen, subj. begönne; barg, from bergen, subj. bürge; gebahr, from gebähren, subj. geböhre; galt, from gelten, subj. gölte; rann,

from rinnen, subj. rönne; ſpann, from ſpinnen, subj. ſpönne; ſtahl, from ſtehlen, subj. ſtöhle; ſtarb, from ſterben, subj. ſtürbe; verdarb, from verderben, subj. verdürbe; ward, from werden, subj. würde. In the examples first adduced, where *e* is put, in the subjunctive, for *a*, this is, in truth, no more than the regular form. For kennete, nennete, rennete, are precisely the same as lobete. Of the instances, which have diphthongs, unlike the vowels of the indicative, is to be remarked, that originally a change of the vowels, in the indicative, has taken place: and that befahl, was formerly befohl; barg was burg; gebahr, gebohr; galt, golt; rann, ronn; ſpann, ſponn; ſtarb, ſtürb; verdarb, verdurb. Some of these are, even now, occasionally used, though perhaps not with sufficient propriety; as befohl, gebohr.

3. The second and third persons singular, of the present tense, and the second person singular, of the imperative mood, of verbs, which have ie, or ů, in the first syllable, are, in ancient language, and poetically, formed in eu: as, biege, 2. beugſt, 3. beugt; imperat. beuge: biete, 2. beutſt, 3. beut; imperat. beut: fliehe, 2. fleuchſt, 3. fleucht; imperat. fleuch: flieſſe, 2. fleuſſeſt, 3. fleußt; imperat. fleuß: lůge, 2. leugſt, 3. leugt; imperat. leug: triege, or trůge, 2. treugſt, 3. treugt; imperat. treug: ziehe, 2. zeuchſt, 3 zeucht; imperat. zeuch. This, however, is not a permanent irregularity, and has, on that account, not been noticed in the catalogue of the verbs.

4. Compound verbs are, in general, inflected as their simples. Therefore, if these are irregular, the compounds will be the same. A few are excepted: for instance,

Veranlaſſen, to occasion, compounded of laſſen; berennen, to blockade a town, from rennen; rathſchlagen, and berath-ſchlagen, to deliberate, from ſchlagen—which compounds follow the regular conjugation. The greatest number of compounds, however, adheres to the conjugation of the simple verbs.

SECTION IV.

VERBS NEUTER.

VERBS, which signify an action, that from the subject nominative passes over to an object, or affects a person, or thing, are, in grammar, called *active*, or *transitive:* and those, which do *not* imply the passing over of the action to a certain object, are styled *intransitive*, or *neuter*. Thus, *I love, I hate*, are actives, or transitives, because the action, therein contained, generally refers to an object, which is expressed, as, *I love—my father; I hate—a slanderer*. But *I walk, I ride, I sleep*, marking an independent action, that is to say, an action without relation to an object; or denoting merely a state of being, or acting, come under the denomination of neuters.

It will be perceived, that the line, between verbs active and neuter, cannot be drawn with precision. For those, which commonly are used as actives, may sometimes appear in the shape of neuters: *I love, I hate*, may mean, *I am in a state of loving, of hating*, without the mention of a particular object. On the other hand, such as, in general, have the character of neuters, may be transformed into actives, as, *I ride—a horse; I fight—a battle; I walk—a mile.*

There would be little more to say of these verbs, were it not necessary to remark, that some of them take, in the preterite tenses, the auxiliary Seyn, *to be*, where, in English, *to have*, is used. These must be pointed out, and described, that the student may not be led into grammatical errour, by the habits of his own language.

Let it, therefore, be noticed, that the following neuters are joined with the auxiliary Seyn, to be.

I. Those, which signify a change, or transition, from one condition, or state, into another. For example: Ausarten, to degenerate, pret. perf. Er iſt ausgeartet; ausfallen, to fall out, to turn out, Es iſt nicht gut ausgefallen, it has not turned out well; einſchlafen, to fall asleep, pret. perf. Ich bin eingeſchlafen; erblaſſen, to grow pale; erkalten, to grow cold; erröthen, to grow red, to blush; erſchrecken, to get frightened; geneſen, to recover from illness, to regain health; gerathen, to get into, to fall into, also to succeed, to prosper; ſchwellen, to swell; verarmen, to grow poor; verblühen, to fade, to wither; verhungern, to perish with hunger; verſchwinden, to disappear; wachſen, to grow, to increase. Add ſterben, to die, to expire, and synonymous words, as entſchlafen, erbleichen, to expire, umkommen, to perish, &c.; for dying implies a change of condition.

II. Such as note motion, with locality, that is, motion with relation to place, or distance. The place, or distance, may either be named, or understood; in both circumstances, Seyn serves for the auxiliary to the verb, in the past tenses. For instance: Ich bin nach London geritten, I have rode to London; der Feind iſt nach der Hauptſtadt marſchiret, the enemy has marched to the capital. Here the locality is expressed. Frequently it is understood, as in

the verbs compounded with the local particles, ab, off; an, on; auf, upon; aus, out; bey, near; durch, through; ein, into; fort, forth, forward; her, and hin, towards; über, over; um, about; vor, before; vorbey, beside, passing by; weg, away; zu, towards; zurück, back. For example, abreiſen, to set off, to depart; anlangen, to come to, to arrive; auftreten, to tread, or step, upon, to step forth; ausſteigen, to get out; beytreten, to step near to, to agree with in opinion; durchſegeln, to sail through; eintreffen, to come into, to arrive at; fortſchleichen, to sneak off; herfliegen, hinfliegen, to fly towards; überlaufen, to run over; umfahren, to drive about, that means, to go the longest way; vordringen, to press forward; vorbeyeilen, to hasten by; wegmarſchiren, to march away; zufliegen, to fly towards. The notion of space, through which the motion proceeds, or in other words, the idea of locality, presents itself to the mind, in those verbs, though the place is not itself nominally introduced.

Motion, however, may also be conceived as mere action, without the association of place, or distance. The verb is, then, conjugated with the first auxiliary, haben. Thus, reiten, to ride; fahren, to drive; ſpringen, to jump; tanzen, to dance: ſchwimmen, to swim—take, haben, when they are put without mention of place, or allusion to locality: as, Ich habe geritten, I have rode, or I have been riding; ſie haben gefahren, they have been driving (a carriage); er hat geſprungen, he has jumped; ſie hat getanzt, she has danced, or has been dancing; wir haben geſchwommen, we have been swimming.

The manner of moving being expressed, as, *fast*, *slow*, &c. Seyn again is employed, as the auxiliary; because this cannot well be imagined, without the recollection of

space. For example: Wir ſind langſam geritten, we have rode slow; wir ſind geſchwinde geritten, we have rode fast. Also in ſpaziereu reiten, Fr. *se promener à cheval*, to take an airing on horseback: as, Er iſt ſpazieren geritten, he has taken an airing on horseback. For though this does not exactly coincide with the preceeding examples, yet the manner of motion seems to be intimated, viz. on horseback. And if it should not appear to be connected with the former, let it be remembered as a separate observation, or as an exception.

III. Seyn, is always joined with these verbs: Fallen, to fall; folgen, to follow; gehen, to go; kommen, to come; weichen, to yield, to give way: and haben is never admitted.

IV. Likewise with the following: Begegnen, to happen, to occur; bleiben, to remain; gelingen, to succeed, to turn out favourably; geſchehen, to happen, to come to pass.—Stehen is sometimes found with the second auxiliary, Seyn, but most frequently with the first, Haben; indeed, the former may perhaps be considered as a provincial deviation.—Aufſtehen, to get up, to rise, though a compound of ſtehen, is inflected with Seyn, in no instance with Haben: of which the reason seems to be, that it denotes motion with locality.

V. In some verbs it is doubtful, whether ſeyn, or haben, should be used. For instance, in begegnen, to meet; beharren, to persevere; einkehren, to stop at an inn, or place of recreation; landen, to land; verfahren, to act, to proceed with.

SECTION V.

REFLECTIVE VERBS.

When the action, expressed by a verb, returns back to the subject, from which it proceeds, the verb is called reflective, or reciprocal: as, *I love myself, I cut myself, he hurts himself.*

It must immediately appear, that every verb, implying action, is capable of assuming this form: but there are several, in German, which never are used without the reciprocal pronouns. These are reflectives, in the strictest sense of the word, and to them, in particular, the present section is devoted. May it suffice, out of their number, to state the following; Anmaßen, to presume, to claim; anſchicken, to prepare; *aufſchwingen, to rise; äußern, to intimate, also to come forth, to appear; bedanken, to thank for a thing; *bedenken, to consider; *befinden, to find; *begeben, to resign; *behelfen, to put up with, to be contented; berühmen, to boast; *beſinnen, to reflect; *bewerben, to sue, or apply for; einbilden, to imagine; *enthalten, to abstain; *entſchlieſſen, to resolve; erbarmen, to pity, to have mercy; freuen, to rejoice; grämen, to grieve; getrauen, to be confident; rühmen, to boast; *unterſtehen, to venture, to dare; widerſetzen, to resist.

It will be useful to show an example of the conjugation of those verbs; and, for that purpose, one shall be selected, the inflection of which is regular. Those marked with a star, are irregular, and must be looked for in the list of irregular verbs.

Sich freuen, to rejoice.

INDICATIVE.	SURJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich freue mich, I rejoice.	1. Ich freue mich, (if) I rejoice.
2. Du freueſt (or freuſt) dich, thou rejoicest.	2. Du freueſt dich, (if) thou rejoice.
3. Er (ſie, es) freuet (or freut) ſich, he (she, it) rejoices.	3. Er (ſie, es) freue ſich, (if) he (she, it) rejoice.
Plural.	*Plural.*
1. Wir freuen uns, we rejoice.	1. Wir freuen uns, we rejoice.
2. Ihr freuet (or freut) euch, you rejoice.	2. Ihr freuet euch, you rejoice.
3. Sie freuen ſich, they rejoice.	3. Sie freuen ſich, they rejoice.
Preterimperfect.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich freuete (or freute) mich, I rejoiced.	1. Ich freuete mich, (if) I rejoiced.
2. Du freueteſt (or freuteſt) dich, thou rejoicedst, &c.	2. Du freueteſt dich, (if) thou rejoiced, &c.
Preterperfect.	
Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich habe mich gefreut (or gefreuet), I have rejoiced.	1. Ich habe mich gefreut, (if) I have rejoiced.
2. Du haſt dich gefreut, thou hast rejoiced.	2. Du habeſt dich gefreut, (if) thou have rejoiced.
3. Er hat ſich gefreut, he has rejoiced.	

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

Plural.

1. Wir haben uns gefreut, we have rejoiced.
2. Ihr habt euch gefreut, you have rejoiced.
3. Sie haben ſich gefreut, they have rejoiced.

Preterpluperfect.

Singular.

1. Ich hatte mich gefreut, I had rejoiced.
2. Du hatteſt dich gefreut, thou hadst rejoiced.
3. Er hatte ſich gefreut, he had rejoiced, &c.

Singular.

1. Ich hätte mich gefreut, (if) I had rejoiced.
2. Du hätteſt dich gefreut, (if) thou hadst rejoiced.
3. Er hätte ſich gefreut, (if) he had rejoiced, &c.

First Future.

Singular.

1. Ich werde mich freuen, I shall rejoice.
2. Du wirſt dich freuen, thou shalt, or wilt, rejoice.
3. Er wird ſich freuen, he shall, or will, rejoice.

Singular.

1. Ich werde micht freuen, (if) I shall rejoice.
2. Du werdeſt dich freuen, (if) thou shalt rejoice, &c.

Plural.

1. Wir werden uns freuen, we shall rejoice.
2. Ihr werdet euch freuen, you shall, or will, rejoice.
3. Sie werden ſich freuen, they shall, or will rejoice

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

Second Future.

Singular.	*Singular.*
1. Ich werde mich gefreut haben, I shall have rejoiced,	1. Ich werde nicht gefreut haben, (if) I shall have rejoiced.
2. Du wirſt dich gefreut haben, thou shalt have rejoiced, &c.	2. Du werdeſt dich gefreut haben, (if) thou shalt have rejoiced, &c.

First Future Conditional.

Singular.

1. Ich würde mich freuen, I should, or would, rejoice.
2. Du würdeſt dich freuen, thou shouldst, or wouldst, rejoice, &c.

Second Future Conditional.

Singular.—1. Ich würde nicht gefreut haben, I should, or would, have rejoiced, &c.

IMPERATIVE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
	(1. Freuen wir uns, let us rejoice.)
2. Freue (du) dich, rejoice (thou).	2. Freuet (or freut) (ihr) euch, rejoice (you).
3. Freue er (ſie, es) ſich, let him (her, it) rejoice.	3. Freuen ſie ſich, let them rejoice.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. Sich freuen, to rejoice.
Pret. perfect. Sich gefreut haben, to have rejoiced.
Fut. Sich freuen werden, to be about to rejoice.

PARTICIPLE PRESENT.

Sich freuend, rejoicing.

Observations.

1. Most of the reflective verbs govern the reciprocal pronouns in the accusative, a few in the dative case. Of the latter class are, Anmaßen, einbilden, getrauen: as, Ich maße mir an, du bildeſt dir ein, ich getraue mir. The impersonal, es däucht, it seemeth, either takes the accusative, or the dative: as, Es däucht mich, or, es däucht mir, it seems to me.

2. Some verbs are only used, as reflectives, in a particular signification. For example: Sich bedenken, to pause, for the purpose of reflection, to hesitate, from bedenken, to reflect upon, to consider; ſich berufen, to appeal to, from berufen, to call; ſich beſcheiden, to be contented with, from beſcheiden, to point out, to direct, to enjoin; ſich fürchten, to be afraid, from fürchten, to fear; ſich hüten, to be cautious, to beware, from hüten, to guard; ſich verantworten, to excuse one's self, to argue against accusation, from verantworten, to answer for.

3. Others are, in the same signification, employed as simple verbs, and as reflectives: for instance, Irren, and ſich irren, to be mistaken; ſcheuen, and ſich ſcheuen, to be shy of a thing; zanken, and ſich zanken, to quarrel.

4. The reflective verbs are joined with the first auxiliary, Haben.

SECTION VI.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

VERBS, which only occur in the third person of the singular number, in as much as they are destitute of the other persons, are termed *Impersonal.* Such are, for example, Es däucht mich (or mir), or mich (mir) däucht, it seems to me, methinks; es dünkt mich, or mich dünkt, it seems to me; es geziemet ſich, it is proper, it is becoming; es ekelt mir, or mir ekelt, it loathes me; es grauet mir (mich), or mir graut, I am afraid. To this class may be added the following, though, in a strict sense, they cannot be called impersonals, because the first and second persons may be used, when required, viz: Es donnert, it thunders; es blitzt, it lightens; es regnet, it rains; es ſchneiet, it snows; es friert, it freezes; es thauet, it thaws; es hagelt, it hails; es reifet, there is a hoar-frost. And these: Es hungert mich, or mich hungert, I am hungry; es durſtet mich, or mich durſtet, I am thirsty: es ſchläfert mich, or mich ſchläfert, I am sleepy.

Those impersonal verbs, which have a pronoun after them, may be said to participate in the nature of reflective verbs: as, Es dünkt mich, es geziemet ſich. And, on the other hand, some of the reflectives have occasionally the impersonal form: for instance, Es freuet mich, it pleases me, I am glad, from ſich freuen; es grämt mich, it grieves me, from ſich grämen; es graut mich, I am afraid, from ſich grauen. When the reflective term is put before the verb, the pronoun Es is, in many words, omitted: as, Mich graut, mich däucht.

SECTION VII.

VERBS COMPOUND.

THIS division comprehends chiefly verbs, that are composed with prepositions, and such invariable words, as, in grammar, are styled particles. The other combinations, for example, those with a verb, and a noun, require little notice.

A Verb Compound is either *Separable* or *Inseparable*: that is to say, the particle, or preposition, at the beginning, may either be separated from the verb, or may not.

A. *Separable*, are those, composed with

ab, as, ablegen, to lay down, from legen, to lay.
an, — anfangen, to begin, ——fangen, to catch.
anheim, — anheimſtellen, to refer to,—— ſtellen, to place,
auf, —aufhören, to cease, ——hören, to hear.
aus, —auslaſſen, to leave out, ——laſſen, to leave.
bey, —beyſtehen, to assist, ——ſtehen, to stand.
dar, —darbringen, to offer, ——bringen, to to present, bring.
dabey, —dabeyſtehen, to stand by,——ſtehen, to stand.
davon, —davonlaufen, to run off,——laufen, to run.
ein, —einkaufen, to buy in, ——kaufen, to buy.
fort, —fortfahren, to continue, from fahren, to move along.

heim, as, heimkehren, to return home, from kehren, to turn.

her, —herbringen, to bring along, ——bringen, to bring.

herab, —herabſetzen, to lower, ——ſetzen, to set.

heran, heranführen, to bring on, ——führen, to lead.

heraus, —herausholen, to fetch out, ——holen, to fetch.

herbey, —herbeyrufen, to call towards you, ——rufen, to call.

herein, —hereinbringen, to bring in, ——bringen, to bring.

hervor, —hervorbringen, to produce, ——bringen, to bring.

hin, —hingehen, to go along, ——gehen, to go.

hinab, —hinablaſſen, to let down, ——laſſen, to let.

hinan, —hinangieſſen, to pour to, ——gieſſen, to pour.

hinaus, —hinauswerfen, to fling out, ——werfen, to fling.

hinüber, —hinübertragen, to carry over, ——tragen, to carry.

hinunter, —hinunterſpringen, to leap down, ——ſpringen, to leap.

hinzu, —hinzueilen, to hasten to a place, ——eilen, to hasten

mit, —mitnehmen, to take with you; also to censure, ——nehmen, to take.

nach, —nachfolgen, to follow after, to succeed, ——folgen, to follow.

nieder, —niederſtoßen, to strike down. ——ſtoßen, to push, to strike.

ob,	as, obliegen, to be incumbent on,	from liegen, to lie.
vor,	—vorgeben, to pretend,	——geben, to give.
voran,	—vorangehen, to go before,	——gehen, to go.
voraus,	—vorausſetzen, to suppose,	——ſetzen, to put.
vorüber,	—vorüberfahren, to pass by,	——fahren, to move,
überein,	—übereinkommen, to agree,	——kommen, to come.
weg,	wegbleiben, to stay away,	——bleiben, to stay.
wieder*	—wiederkommen, to come again,	——kommen, to come.
zu,	—zureden, to persuade,	——reden, to talk.
zurück,	—zurückkehren, to return,	——kehren, to turn.
zuſammen,	—zuſammenſetzen, to put together, to compose, to construct,	——ſetzen, to put.

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* In wiederholen, to repeat, from holen, to fetch, it is inseparable; which may lead to the supposition, that the verb should be written, widerholen: for the particle wider is inseparable. But the circumstance may be accounted for by supposing, that the same particle is used as separable and inseparable, according to a difference of signification, attributed to the verb, with which it is joined.

Rules.

I. The separation takes place

1. In the imperative mood: as fange (du) an, begin (thou); fange er an, let him begin; fanget (ihr) an, begin (you): fangen ſie an, let them begin. Thus: höre auf, cease, &c.

2. In the indicative, and subjunctive, when the verb is not, by the influence of a pronoun, or a conjunction, removed to the end of the sentence. For instance: Ich fahre fort, I continue; du fährſt fort, thou continuest: er fährt fort, he continues; wir fahren fort, we continue; ihr fahret fort, you continue; ſie fahren fort, they continue.

3. When the infinitive has the preposition zu before it,* that preposition is placed between the compounding particle, and the verb: as, anzufangen, aufzuhören, fortzufahren.

4. The augment ge, in the preterite participle, is inserted between the particle, and the verb: as, angefangen, aufgehört, fortgefahren.

II. The particle, separated from the verb, is put

1. In the infinitive, and preterite participle, before the verb, as appears from the examples adduced.

2. In the other instances, after the verb; and not only after the verb, from which it has been disjoined,

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* See Part II, Chap. 1. Sect. 2.

but also after the subject nominative, if that should happen to stand after the verb* : as, So fange ich an, thus do I begin; nun hört der Lärm auf, now the noise ceases : and, generally, after the cases governed by the verb. For example : Ich fange das Buch an, I begin the book, verb anfangen ; nehmen Sie mir die Last ab, take from me the burden, verb abnehmen : wir theilten unsern Freunden die Nachricht mit, we communicated the information to our friends, verb mittheilen. Frequently also after the relative members of a sentence : as, Ich stellte die Sache meinem Bruder und zwey Männern, welche meine Freunde waren, anheim, I referred the matter to my brother, and to two men who were my friends ; verb anheimstellen. Indeed, the particle is hardly ever found before the cases, governed by the verb, except it were from the necessity of rhyme, or metre ; and, even then, it is not justifiable, if the cases be mere pronouns : as, Ich fange es an, I begin it ; where you could not say, ich fange an es. Or, nehmen Sie mir es ab, take it from me, which could not possibly be expressed, by nehmen Sie ab es mir.—Sometimes, the particle is placed after the infinitive, governed by the compound verb : as, Er fängt zu lesen an, he begins to read, for er fängt an zu lesen.

B. *Compound Verbs Inseparable*, those beginning with

be,	as, beweisen, to prove, from weisen, to show.		
emp,	—empfangen, to receive,	——	fangen, to take.

* See Part II, Chap. 4, Sect. 1, 3, 4.

ent,	—entehren, to dishonour,	—— ehren, to honour
er,	—erhalten, to preserve,	—— halten, to hold.
ge,	—gebrauchen, to make use of,	—— brauchen, to use.
hinter,	—hintergehen, to deceive,	—— gehen, to go.
miß,	mißfallen, to displease,	—— fallen, to fall.
ver,	—verzehren, to consume,	—— zehren, to waste.
verab,	—verabſcheuen, to detest,	—— ſcheuen, to shun,
vernach,	—vernachläſſigen, to neglect,	—— laſſen, to leave.
verun,	—verunreinigen, to soil,	—— reinigen, to clean.
wider,	—widerrathen dissuade,	——rathen, to advise.
zer,	—zerſtören, to destroy,	——ſtören, to stir.

Rule.

These verbs never admit a separation of the prefix; nor receive the augment ge, in the preterite participle, except a few compounded with miß, which, though inseparable, take the syllable ge in the said participle. Such are those of an active, and transitive signification: as, Mißbilligen, to disapprove, preterite participle, gemißbilliget; mißbrauchen, to abuse, preterite participle, gemißbraucht; mißdeuten, to misinterpret, preterite participle, gemißdeutet; mißhandeln, to ill treat, preterite parti-

ciple, gemißhandelt. Others, composed with miß, especially neuters, refuse the augment, in the preterite participle: as, Mißfallen, to displease, preterite participle, mißfallen, not gemißfallen; mißglücken, to turn out ill, to fail, preterite participle, mißglückt mißlungen, to fail, preterite participle, mißlungen; mißrathen, not to prosper, preterite participle, mißrathen. Sometimes the augment ge, in the preterite participle, and the preposition zu, in the infinitive, are inserted between the particle, and the verb: as, mißgeboten, mißzubieten, from mißbieten; mißgeartet, mißzuarten, from mißarten, to degenerate. But this seems to be an unnecessary departure from the rule.

C. *Separable and Inseparable*, are verbs compounded with the following prepositions:

durch, as, durchbrechen, to break through, separable and inseparable; preterite participle, durchgebrochen, and durchbrochen, from brechen, to break.

über, as, überſetzen, to get over, to leap over, separable; preterite participle, übergeſetzt: and überſetzen, to translate, inseparable; preterite participle, überſetzt—both from ſetzen, to put.

um, as, umlaufen, to run round, separable and inseparable; preterite participle, umgelaufen, and umlaufen, from laufen, to run.

unter, as, untergehen, to go down, to perish, separable; preterite participle, untergegangen, from gehen, to go: unternehmen, to undertake, inseparable; pret. part. unternommen, from nehmen, to take.

Rules.

I. Those verbs, when separable, have a neutral signification, without a case following: as, Er bricht durch, he breaks through: er iſt durchgebrochen, he has broken through. When inseparable, they are transitives, and govern the accusative case: as, Die Sonne durchbricht die Wolken, the sun breaks through the clouds. Add the following example: Das Rad läuft um, the wheel runs round, separable; der Hund umläuft das Feld, the dog runs round the field, inseparable. Die Pferde ſetzen über, the horses leap over, separable: der Knabe überſetzt den Homer, the boy translates Homer, inseparable. Die Sonne geht unter, the sun sets, separable; ich unternehme das Werk, I undertake the work, inseparable. Such is the rule; but a deviation from it occurs in some verbs, composed with durch, and um. For example: Durchbrechen, to break in pieces; umſtoßen, to knock down, to overset, to overturn; unwerfen, to throw down, to overturn; umſtürzen, to overthrow; umdrehen, to turn about, to twist about; umbringen, to kill: are separable, though they are used as verbs transitive. This must be considered either as a mere exception, or may be explained, as I have done in another place*, by saying, that the rule is only applicable, when the component particle has its first, or original, signification. When that signification is altered, the verbs, which were inseparable, become separable. The original signification of durch is *through*,

* See Exercises, p. 72.

but in that example it means *asunder:* um denotes circular motion, but in the instances above, the idea of inversion and change, or some other notion, seems to prevail.

II. In these compounds, the accent varies: for, when they are used as separables, it is laid upon the preposition, as, durchbrechen; when they are inseparable, the preposition is void of accent, as, durchbrechen. Thus umlaufen, separable.—umlaufen, inseparable; übersetzen, separable—übersetzen, inseparable—untergehen, separable—unternehmen, inseparable.

D. Some verbs are doubly compounded, with particles separable, and inseparable: for example, Auferziehen, to bring up, to educate; anvertrauen, to entrust; verabscheuen, to detest. The particles auf and an, are to be found among the separables; er and ver, are inseparable. These verbs, though separable, after one of the particles, do not take the syllable ge, in the preterite participle: as, auferzogen, anvertraut, verabscheut.

E. Of those, which are composed with nouns, it is to be observed, that some are *separable*, as, fehlschlagen, to miscarry; freysprechen, to acquit; gleichkommen, to equal; losreissen, to tear loose: and some *inseparable*. Several of the latter have the augment ge, in the preterite participle, like simple verbs. For example: frohlocken, to exult; handhaben, to handle; frühstücken, to breakfast; liebäugeln, to exchange fond looks: which make the preterite participles, gefrohlockt, gehandhabt, gefrühstückt, geliebäugelt. Those with voll, full, are insepa-

rable, and reject the augment: as, vollziehen, to execute, pret. part. vollzogen.

Concerning the Signification of Compound Verbs.

In reviewing those which are separable, few difficulties occur. The prefixes, for the most part, may be rendered intelligible by translation. Thus, ab, signifies off; an, on; auf, up, or upon; aus, out of; bey, by; dar. there; ein, in, or into; fort, forth, or forward; gleich, like; heim, home; mit, with; nach, after; nieder, down; ob, on, upon; vor, before; weg, away; wieder again. Only hin, and her, require an explanation. They are both particles of locality. Hin, expresses motion proceeding from the person, who is speaking, to another point; her, denotes motion from any place, towards that person. Thus, er geht hin, he goes along, means, he goes from the point, in which the subjective person is, to some other point; and, er kömmt her, signifies, he comes from any place towards the person. Therefore, when I bid any one to proceed from me, it will be, gehen Sie hin; and when I desire him to come towards me, kommen Sie her. But more is to be said of the compounds inseparable. The nature, and meaning of their prefixes, are complicated, and call for some illlustration.

Be, supposed to be related, to the preposition bey*, serves

* A curious, or rather whimsical, etymology of this particle is offered, by an anonymous writer, in the Monthly Magazine, for July 1801. p. 504.—It exists in

1. To transform verbs neuter into transitives. For example: Folgen, to follow, is a neuter, construed with the dative case; befolgen, to follow, in a metaphorical sense, to obey, a verb transitive, with the accusative;—arbeiten, to work, to labour, neuter; bearbeiten, to bestow labour upon a thing, to elaborate, transitive;—lachen, to laugh, neuter; belachen, to laugh at, transitive;—ſteigen, to ascend, or descend, neuter; beſteigen, to ascend a thing, to mount upon, transitive, as, den Thron beſteigen, to ascend the throne;—antworten, to answer, to make answer, neuter; beantworten, to answer, transitive, as, einen Brief beantworten, to answer a letter;—zweifeln, to doubt, becomes bezweifeln. Thus, in English, *to rhyme*, is a verb neuter, *to berhyme*, a transitive.

2. In composition with verbs transitive, it has the effect of exchanging the case, governed by the simple verb, for one, depending upon the preposition mit, with. For example: Blumen auf den Weg ſtreuen, to strew flowers on the way; here Blumen is the accusative case, governed by the verb ſtreuen, and den Weg is governed by the preposition auf. Now, taking the compound beſtreuen; it will be, den Weg mit Blumen beſtreuen, to strew the way with flowers: here the cases are changed, and den Weg is governed by the verb; the former object accusative

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all Teutonick languages; even in the English, as is proved by the verbs *to bedeck*, *bespringle*, *begnaw*, *begird*, and others.

in its turn, is combined with the preposition mit. Figuren auf das Papier mahlen, to paint figures on the paper; Figuren is the object accusative, governed by the simple verb mahlen. Making the latter a compound with be, the phrase will then be: das Papier mit Figuren bemahlen, to paint the paper with figures; das Papier is become the object accusative, and Figuren is joined with the preposition mit.

3. Any part of speech may, by means of the prefix be, receive the character of a verb: as, Beflügeln, to furnish with wings, from der Flügel, the wing, a substantive; bereichern, to enrich, from reich, rich, an adjective.* The German grammar admits this operation with considerable freedom, though not every combination, which may be formed in that manner, can be regarded as classical. For instance: Er schreit juchhey! he cries huzza—ich will ihn bejuchheyen, I will huzza him; that means, I will make him change his note, I will punish him, or something like it. Here an interjection is transformed into a verb. Er nennt sich Herr Maskow, he calls himself Mr. Maskow—ich will ihn bemaskowen, I will maskow him, *i. e.* I will teach him how to use that name, I will make him know what he is doing, or a similar idea. Here a verb is made of a proper name, by the aid of the particle be. These expressions are, in fact, a sort of jargon, or cant language: yet they show the nature of that particle.

4. In some instances, the signification of the simple

* Thus in English, *to befriend, to beguile, to behead, to bedew,* from *friend, guile, head, dew.*

verbs does not seem to be altered, by the composition with be: as, fördern and befördern, to further, to forward; fürchten and befürchten, to fear. The simples as well as the compounds, are employed as transitives. However, if the use of such verbs be strictly enquired into, a difference may be discovered. For example: Befördern, means to promote a person to a higher rank: in which sense the simple, fördern, rarely, or never, occurs: and befürchten, to fear, is not applied to persons, as objects, but only to things, as, Ich befürchte diesen Umstand, I fear this circumstance; whereas fürchten is capable of both significations. Moreover, the latter seems to denote a stronger fear, and befürchten merely apprehension, or doubt.

Ent signifies

1. Privation: as, Entehren, to deprive of honour, to dishonour, from ehren; enterben, to disinherit, from erben; entbinden, to free from a tie, hence to act as a midwife, Fr. *accoucher*, from binden; entfesseln, to free from fetters, to set at liberty, from fesseln; entvölkern, to deprive of population, to depopulate, from das Volk, the people; entwaffnen, to disarm, from waffnen. It is, in this signification, the reverse of Be.

2. Removal, or motion, from a place: as, Entfliehen, to fly, to escape, from fliehen; entführen, to carry off, from führen; entziehen to withdraw, to take away, from ziehen. Sometimes, it seems to express approach, or motion, towards a certain object: as in entbieten, to bid, to send word to; entsprechen, to answer to, to correspond with, to suit with. Thus in the adverb entgegen, towards, encountering. The notion of approach implies the proceeding

from a certain place towards another, so that the idea of removal from a place is, in some manner, connected with it.

3. It notes origin, and beginning: as, Entſpringen, to spring forth, to arise, from ſpringen; entſtehen, to arise, to be produced, from ſtehen; entzünden, to inflame, to set on fire, from zünden; entbrennen, metaphorically, to catch fire.

The first signification is to be considered as the radical one, from which the other two are derived. For removal is a species of privation, which the place sustains, whence the removal is made: and origin and beginning may be brought under the same head, so far as that which arises and begins to appear, withdraws, or disengages itself from that wherein it was before contained, or concealed, and thus causes a sort of privation to the same.

The verbs with ent that signify a removal, have the place, or person, from which the motion is made, in the dative case.

Emp

is considered as a mere alteration of ent, before the letter f. But it might also be said that it was a corruption of ein, in. For it seems, in some instances, to answer the sense, which may be attributed to ein: as, in empfangen, to receive, which originally might be einfangen; empfinden, to perceive, to feel, einfinden. In other verbs, it does not suit so well: for example, in empfehlen, to recommend; where the first signification of ent may seem to be applicable, if we suppose the primitive meaning of entfehlen (now empfehlen) to be, to strip of faults, to make faultless, to represent as faultless.

Er denotes

1. The obtaining of an object, in consequence of action, or exertion: as, Erfechten, to obtain by fighting—Die Engländer haben einen Sieg erfochten, the English, by fighting, have gained a victory. Thus, erreiten, to obtain by riding; ertanzen, to obtain by dancing.

2. A motion upwards. as, Erheben, to raise up; errichten, to erect.

3. The act of opening: as, Eröffnen, to open; erbrechen, to break open.

4. The act of inventing, and producing to light: as, Erdenken, to find out by meditation, to invent; erfinden, to invent; erſinnen, to invent by reflection.

5. The placing, or being placed, or getting, into a certain state, or condition: as, Erwärmen, to warm; erröthen, to grow red, to blush; erſchrecken, to terrify, and to be terrified.

Ge.

The power of this prefix, whatever it primarily might be, is, at present, not easy to be distinguished. It may, perhaps, have consisted in an intension of signification. But now most of the verbs, composed with this particle, seem to be the same in meaning as the simples: for example, Brauchen, and gebrauchen, to use: denken, and gedenken, to think—though it may happen, that some particular signification is more usual, in the simple verb than in the compound, and again another more common, with the compound than the simple. For instance, brauchen frequently denotes, to want, to stand in need of, to have

occasion for; but gebrauchen is scarcely ever employed in that sense. Thus gedenken, with the genitive case, means to remember, to think of: as, Gedenke meiner, remember me, think of me; in which construction denken never occurs.—This is the same particle, which is prefixed to the preterite participle, where it evidently is applied to indicate the past action of the verb.—In the districts of the Upper German dialect, it is, here and there, by the common people, put before every infinitive: as, Geloben, for loben, to praise; gelieben, for lieben, to love.

Ver implies

1. The idea, *away;* as, Vertreiben, to drive away, from treiben, to drive; verjagen, to chase away, from jagen; verschenken, to give away, from schenken.* Hence it signifies

2. A loss:† as, Verlieren, to lose; verspielen, to lose at play: and

3. Destruction, or consumption: as, Verblühen, to fade; verwelken, to wither; verschmachten, to be famished, to die of hunger; verbluten, to bleed to death. It denotes

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* Even in the verb, versprechen, to promise, it is thus to be explained. Sprechen, to speak, combined with ver, literally signifies to *speak away*, i. e. to part with, by your speech; to give up your future independence of acting, respecting any particular thing, by a declaration made to that purpose.

† This is answered by the adverb *away*, in the English language; as in these examples, *to trifle away one's time, to drink away one's senses.*

4. Prohibition: as, Verbieten, to forbid; verhindern, to hinder; verwehren, to prohibit; verbitten, to refuse, to decline; verſagen, to deny, to refuse.

5. Change, or transmutation: as, Verrücken, to move a thing out of its place; verſchieben, to put off; verſetzen, to transpose; verpflanzen, to transplant; verändern, to change; verwechſeln, to confound.

6. It signifies doing wrong, deviating from what is just, and proper: as, Verführen, to seduce; verleiten, to misguide; verſalzen, to spoil by adding too much salt; ſich verrechnen, to misreckon; ſich verſchreiben, to commit an errour in writing; ſich verſprechen, to make a mistake in speaking; vergeſſen, to forget; ſich verſtellen, to dissemble.

7. Shutting up, or closing: as, Verſchlieſſen, to lock up; verſtopfen, to stop up: vermauern, to stop by means of a wall, to wall up; verſiegeln, to seal up; verpichen, to close, or stop, with pitch; vernageln, to nail up, to spike.

8. It enforces, and strengthens, the signification of verbs: as, Verehren, to honour, from ehren; verſpotten, to mock; verlachen, to laugh at; verleihen, to grant.

9. It involves the idea of a close union, and connexion: as, Verflechten, to entwine, to implicate; verbinden, to connect; verbrüdern, to join by a brotherly tie; verſchwägern, to unite by intermarriage; verſchwören, to conspire. And lastly,

10. It expresses the placing, or getting (*i. e.* being placed), into a certain state, or condition: as, Verbeſſern,

to better, to make better; verdunkeln, to darken, to obscure; veredeln, to ennoble, to improve; vergöttern, to deify; veralten, to grow obsolete, to fall into disuse; verarmen, to fall into poverty.

Zer

notes separation of parts, dispersion, destruction: as, Zertreten, to tread in pieces, to crush; zerreiben, to rub to atoms; zerſtreuen, to scatter, to disperse; zerſtören, to destroy.

Miß (or mis), answering to the English *mis*,

1. Marks an action, done, or carried on, in a wrong manner: as, Mißbrauchen, to abuse, from brauchen, to use; mißhandeln, to ill treat, from handeln, or behandeln, to deal with; mißdeuten, to misinterpret, from deuten, to interpret; mißverſtehen, to misunderstand, from verſtehen.

2. It has a negative power: as, Mißfallen, to displease, from gefallen, to please; miſtbilligen, to disapprove, from billigen, to approve.—Those significations are also to be seen in union with nouns: as das Mißverſtändniß, the misunderstanding; der Mißbrauch, the abuse; daß Mißtrauen, suspicion; mißfällig, unpleasing, offensive; mißtrauiſch, suspicious.

Hinter, signifies

1. Behind: as, Hinterlaſſen, to leave behind.

2. It is used in a metaphorical sense: as, Hinterbringen, to give secret intelligence; hintergehen, to deceive; hintertreiben, to prevent. And in nouns: as, die Hinterliſt, the cunning; hinterliſtig, crafty.

Unter corresponds with

1. The English *under*, Lat. *sub*: as, Unternehmen, to undertake.

2. The Latin *inter*, and *ob*: as, Unterbrechen, to interrupt; unterlaſſen, to omit.

Um,

in the verbs umbringen, to put to death, to murder; and umkommen, to perish, needs an explanation, though it is hardly here in its proper place, as it is separable in those verbs. It first signifies *about*; then denotes *change*; after that *loss*, in which last sense, it is applied to those verbs. Jemanden umbringen, to put a person to death, is an elliptical expression for, jemanden um das Leben bringen, to cause somebody to lose his life. In a similar way, umkommen, is to be interpreted.

The particle Un, like the English *un*, is a privative, but occurs only in combination with nouns, and preterite participles.—Erz, answering to *arch*, before nouns, denotes the chief, or first in a class.

CHAPTER V.

ON THE PARTICIPLE.

THE participle, being deduced from the verb, and sharing its power and signification, is, in the English language, not improperly, considered as a part of the same. Here a particular chapter is assigned to it, as a distinct subject of grammar: because there is something peculiar in its use, which seems to require, that it should be treated of separately. It seems to form a connecting link between the noun and the verb; but it neither entirely belongs to the one, nor to the other.

The Germans have two participles, the present, and the preterite: and we shall speak, in

SECTION I,

OF THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

It is made of the infinitive mood, by addition of the letter *d*: as, from Loben, to praise, part. lobend; from Lachen, to laugh, part. lachend, laughing.

This participle has the signification of the verb, from which it is derived; and may govern the same case, as the verb. With these qualifications it unites the nature of an adjective. In fact, it is never used otherwise than in connexion with some substantive, or with the same relation to it, that a common adjective generally bears.

For example: Der lachende Frühling, the smiling spring; der tanzende Knabe, the dancing boy; das laufende Jahr, the running (or current) year.

It is, like any other adjective, capable of the four forms: as, the second form, Erquickender Wein, refreshing wine; ſtärkende Speiſe, strengthening food; kühlendes Getränke, cooling drink. Fourth form: Ein liebender Vater, a loving father; eine trauernde Schweſter, a mourning sister; ein weinendes Kind, a weeping child. Examples of the first and third forms, have been above given.

The first, or adverbial, form is never put after any verb; especially, not after the second auxiliary, ſeyn, to be. Here the participle not only deserts the function of the adjective: but also leaves us destitute of a verbal combination, much in practice with the English. For, with regard to the adjective, it is common, in German, to place it adverbially after verbs: for instance, Dieß iſt ſchön, this is beautiful; jenes iſt häßlich, that is ugly.* And by means of the present participle, joined to the second auxiliary, the English produce what is termed *the definite*, or *determined, time*: as, "I am writing; he is reading; we are looking; he has been walking; they will be going."† But the German participle cannot be thus employed, except where, from its signification, it is quite regarded as an adjective: Es iſt reitzend, it is charming; dieſe Beleidigung iſt kränkend, this insult is mortifying; ihre Sitten waren ſehr einnehmend, her manners

* See p. 181.

† See p. 279.

were very captivating; die Noth iſt dringend, the necessity is pressing; die Laſt iſt drückend, the burden is oppressive.

As an adjective, it may be said to admit the degrees of comparison, by means of additional endings. However, these degrees are not equally in use, with all participles. Indeed, the comparative only occurs of such, as have more the signification of adjectives, than of the verbs, from which they are taken. At least, they are become so current, as adjectives, that, in common practice, they are hardly looked upon as parts of a verb. Of that description are, for example, Reitzend (from reitzen, to charm), charming, pleasing, comparative, reitzender, more charming; einnehmend, captivating, agreeable, comp. einnehmender; flieſſend, flowing, fluent, comp. flieſſender; dringend, pressing, urgent, comp. dringender; drückend, oppressive, heavy, comp. drückender. Now these, and others of the same kind, suffer the comparative degree in the first, but scarcely in any other form. Other participles are not to be met with, in the comparative degree, at all. If with them a comparison is to be made, it must be done through the medium of the word mehr, more.—The superlative degree, may be applied to those participles, which allow the comparative, as, der reitzendſte, der flieſſendſte, but it cannot be transferred to the others.

Like an adjective, the participle may *elliptically* (see p. 197.) be turned into a substantive: as, der Leſende, he that reads, or is reading; der Schreibende, he that writes; die Lachende, she who is laughing.

The German participle has not enough of the nature

of the verb, to serve for the purpose of constituting a member of a sentence: which power is principally assigned to it, in other languages. In English, you may, for example, say with propriety, "Seeing the great number of prisoners, I concluded, that the action had terminated in our favour." This sentence consists of two members: *first*, I saw the prisoners: *second*, I concluded. The first member is expressed by the participle. So the following: "Hearing the noise of the cannon, he started up"—for, he heard the noise of the cannon, and started up.—In German, the participle cannot perform this office: the members of a sentence are constructed in some other way, and generally by means of conjunctions: as, "I saw the great number of prisoners, *and* concluded;" or, "*when (as)* I saw the number of prisoners, I concluded;"—"*when*, he heard the noise of the cannon, he started up;" or *as soon as* he heard the noise of the cannon, he started up." Much less would the language bear the compound participle, with the auxiliaries: as, "having loved," or "having been loved." It would, for instance, be a great errour, to translate, by the participle, the following sentence: "Having received your letter, I immediately desired my servant to proceed"—Habend erhalten Ihren Brief, &c. The structure must be changed, in this, or a similar manner: "I received your letter, *and* immediately desired," &c. or, "*When* (*as soon as*) I had received your letter, I immediately desired my servant," &c. The conjunction, indem, while, was formerly much used for resolving the participial construction of other

tongues, into the German idiom. But it occurs, at present, less frequently.

Though that is the most proper use of the participle, in other languages, the German does not acknowledge it: unless the following mode of employing the participle be considered, as connected with the former. Namely, it sometimes expresses the manner of acting, being, or suffering and is then adverbially joined to a verb. For example: Weinend ſprach er zu mir, *weeping* he said to me: er ſetzte ſich ſchweigend nieder, he sat down, *preserving* silence; ſie ſtanden trauernd bey dem Grabe, they stood *mourning* near the tomb.

The poets occasionally exceed the limits prescribed by common usage; and give a greater latitude to the verbal capacity of the participle. This is, in fact, an affectation of foreign manners. Allowance is to be made for poetical licence; and certain privileges are to be granted to the muse, to which ordinary language must not aspire. Yet this liberty ought not to be too far extended; nor is it to be supposed, that what most deviates from the rules of prosaick accuracy, is always most poetical. It will not be amiss to mention a few instances, from Voss's translation of Homer. This is a good version of that great poet: but the close imitation of the original, which it strives after, frequently gives it the character of pedantry. Among its peculiarities is the use of the present participle, which, though it corresponds with the Greek, is not countenanced by the genius and spirit of the German language. For example:

Iliad, Book I.

V. 51. Doch nun gegen ſie ſelbſt das herbe geſchoß hinwendend, Traf er—*Turning* the bitter arrows against them, he inflicted wounds.

V. 130. Gegen ihn rief antwortend der völkerfürſt Agamemnon —Agamemnon *answering* called to him.

V. 147. Ha! du in unverſchämtheit gehüllteter, ſinnend auf vortheil—Ah! thou, clad in impudence, *thinking* of gain.

V. 290. Ihm in die red' einfallend begann der edle Achilleus—*Interrupting him*, the noble Achilles began.

V. 325. Hin mit mehren kommend—*Coming* with more people.

V. 345. Jener ſprachs, und Patroklos, dem lieben freunde gehorchend, Führt aus dem Zelt—He spoke it, and Patroclus, *obeying* his dear friend, led her forth from the tent.

V. 420. Du indeß an des meers ſchnellwandelnden ſchiffen dich ſetzend, Zürne dem Danaervolk—*Seating thyself* near the ships, indulge thy spleen against the Grecians.

Book 9.

V. 57. Hoch das wort anſtaunend.—Greatly *admiring* the speech.

V. 86. In den händen die ragenden ſpeere bewegend—*Brandishing* in their hands the lofty spears.

V. 194. Verlaſſend den ſitz wo er ruhte—*Leaving* his seat.

V. 196. Beid' an der hand anfaſſend—*Seizing* them both by the hand.

It must, however, be observed, that even in these examples, the participle more expresses a manner of acting, than aims at forming a member of the sentence.

The most essential quality, which the present participle retains of the verb, is, that it may govern a case. And this is perfectly agreeable to the nature of the language, provided a sentence is not clogged by long, or many, words of that description. For instance: Die alles belebende Sonne, the sun, which animates every thing; der Früchte bringende Sommer, the summer, which produces fruit; die mir bevorſtehende Gefahr, the danger hanging over me: das uns verfolgende Geſchick, the fate persecuting us. — Let it be noticed, that the cases governed are placed before the participle. Sometimes, the case and participle are drawn together, and written as one word: for instance, Ein ehrliebendes Gemüth, instead of, ein Ehre liebendes Gemüth, a mind that loves honour; der wachhabende Officier, for, der Wache habende Officier, the officer upon guard; *die geſetzgebende* Gewalt, for, die Geſetze gebende Gewalt, the legislative authority; die kriegführenden Mächte, for, Krieg führenden, the belligerent powers.

From analogy to the foregoing, the participles of reflective verbs might likewise be admitted: as, Der ſich freuende Vater, the father, who rejoices; die ſich grämende Mutter, the mother, who chagrines, or frets, herself. Yet they are seldom made use of. Of impersonal verbs, as such, no present participle can exist.

To answer the Latin participle in *dus*, which is of a gerundive signification, and in English expressed by the preterite participle, with *to be*, before it, the Germans have formed a similar participle from their present, by

means of the preposition, zu, to. For example: Das hoch zu ſchätzende Verdienſt, merit to be highly esteemed; die zu tadelnde Strenge, severity which is to be blamed; eine ſchwer zu behauptende Beſitzung, a possession to be maintained with difficulty. Thus: Hochzuehrender Herr, honourable Sir, (who is greatly to be honoured).—This use of the participle is sprung from the infinitive, connected with that preposition. For the Germans (like some other nations) employ the infinitive of the active voice, with zu, where the English, more properly, resort to the passive: as, Dieß iſt zu loben, this is to be praised (literally, to praise); das iſt zu tadeln, that is to be blamed (lit. to blame).

The present participle, may, in English, be converted into a substantive, by a preceding article, as, *the writing*, *the reading*. This cannot be done in German, where the infinitive only serves for that purpose: as, das Schreiben, das Leſen.

The Germans employ, in many instances, the infinitive, where the English use the participle: as, Da er ſeine Jungen ſchmachten ſah, when he saw his young ones *starve*, i. e. starving.

SECTION II.

THE PRETERITE PARTICIPLE.

Its formation is sufficiently known from the fourth chapter. It either ends in *t* (*et*), or *n* (*en*); and has, for the most part, the augment *ge* before it: as, gelobt, geſprochen. That augment is only refused by verbs com-

pound inseparable, and by a few others, whose infinitive is in *ieren*, or *iren*: as, regiert, lammentiert, haſeliert, ſpaziert.

The function of the preterite participle is twofold: *first*, when combined with the auxiliary verbs, it makes some of the compound tenses of conjugation; and *secondly*, as an adjective, it is joined to substantives. In the latter capacity, it is more freely used by the Germans, than by the English. The former employ, without difference, any preterite participle as an adjective, and in all the four forms. For example: second f. Geliebter Sohn, loved son; third f. die geprieſene Tugend, the praised virtue; fourth f. ein verachtetes Geſchöpf, a despised creature.

The nature of an adjective is farther manifested in the degrees of comparison, of which this participle is susceptible; though the use of those degrees is limited, as has been stated in another place.*

Some participles are preserved, in the quality of adjectives, the verbs of which are become obsolete. Such are, Behaftet, afflicted with; beſcheiden, modest; gewogen, friendly, favouring; geſchickt, clever; geſchlacht, neat, proper; gewohnt, accustomed. Others, though reducible to existing verbs, are considered as mere adjectives, in point of signification. Of this kind are, Berühmt, renowned; gelehrt, learned; vergnügt, pleased, gay, happy; verwandt, related by kindred; vollkommen, perfect. There is, indeed, so strong a relation between the nature of the pre-

* See p. 208.

terite participle, and that of the noun, that, on the other hand, adjectives are formed in the participial shape, though not derived from any verb: for instance, Geſittet, good mannered, from die Sitten, manners, a noun substantive; beherzt, courageous, from das Herz, the heart; bejahrt, advanced in years, old, and überjahrt, superannuated, from das Jahr, the year; bemittelt, wealthy, from die Mittel, plur. wealth; bemooſt, covered with moss, from das Moos, the moss; beſchilft, covered with reeds, from das Schilf, the reed.—From simple verbs, compound participles are made, which likewise bear the signification of adjective nouns. This is proved by the following examples: Bekannt, known, acquainted, from kennen, to know; beredt, eloquent, from reden, to speak; beſchaffen, circumstanced, from ſchaffen, to cause to exist; bewandert, conversant in a thing, from wandern, to wander; abgeneigt, disinclined, favourable, from neigen, to incline; verſoffen, given to drinking, from ſauffen, to drink intemperately; verſchwiegen, habituated to secrecy, faithful to a secret, from ſchweigen, to be silent.

The preterite participle, in English, may be put together with the present participle of an auxiliary verb: as, "having loved, being loved, having been loved;" the German language does not license this connexion, as has been observed in the first section of the present chapter.

The signification of the preterite participle is either passive, or denotes a certain state, or quality. But some of these participles, joined with the verb Kommen, and expressing the manner of coming, or approaching, seem to have an active power: as, Er kömmt geritten, he comes

(lit. ridden) riding, or on horseback, from reiten; er kömmt gelaufen, he comes running, from laufen; er kömmt gefahren, he comes driving *i. e.* in a carriage, from fahren; er kömmt geflogen, he comes flying, *i. e.* upon wings, from fliegen; er kömmt gelacht, he comes laughing.*

The syllable *un*, being put before any participle, reverses the signification, or makes it negative. For instance: Ungeliebt, not loved; ungeſtraft, unpunished; ungerächt, unavenged.

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* Something similar, though not exactly the same, is to be found in other Teutonick languages, for example, in the Swedish, *komma tågandes*, to approach slowly, or solemnly. See Möller's Swedish Dictionnary, word *tåga*. In German, they are chiefly participles from verbs of motion, which are thus associated with kommen; but the last example, above adduced, er kömmt gelacht, which is taken from Lessing's comedy, the Jews (die Juden), scene 19th, shows that this construction may also be applied to other verbs.

CHAPTER VI.

ON THE ADVERB.

FROM general grammar it is known, that adverbs are words, which, in speech, are added to other words, to express a certain modification, that is to say, a mode of action, or existence. Thus there are adverbs denoting manner, order, time, place, motion, quantity, quality, relation, comparison, doubt, affirmation, negation, demonstration, interrogation. It would be needless to enter into a detail of all these classes: but a few observations suggest themselves, which are of practical utility.

Adverbs are not variable, except that some admit the degrees of comparison, as, in English, *soon*, comp. *sooner*, sup. *soonest*. In German, the adverbs of quality are particularly subject to the degrees of comparison: as, Wohl, beſſer, am beſten, well, better, best; ſchön, finely; ſchöner, more finely; am ſchönſten, most finely.

Adverbs of quality abound in the German language: for every adjective furnishes such an adverb. The first form of adjectives, thence called the adverbial, may, without limitation, be thus employed. For this reason, it has been maintained, by some grammarians, that adjectives are nothing else than adverbs, provided with

declinable terminations, and adapted to substantives. But this seems a question, in itself of little importance.*

To form an adverb of quality, from an adjective, requires, in English, the addition of the syllable *ly* : as, from *quiet*, *quietly;* from *fine*, *finely; nice*, *nicely.* The German adjective has the means of yielding an adverb out of its own forms, quite ready for use, without a similar process. It is true, that in some instances the ending lich, appears to answer to the English *ly*: as, Kürzlich, not long ago; erſtlich, in the first place; ſchwerlich, hardly, scarcely; but that ending is not exclusively adverbial. It is found in several adjectives : as, Männlich, manly ; fürſtlich, princely ; königlich, royal, or kingly ; glücklich, lucky ; gefährlich, dangerous.

Some words become adverbs, by means of an additional *s* : for example, Bereits already, from bereit, ready; ſtets, constantly, from ſtet, constant ; eilends, hastily ; from eilend, partic. hasting ; beſonders, particularly, from beſonder, particular ; anders, otherwise, from ander, other ; rechts, to the right hand, from recht, right ; links, to the left, from link, left. Add the distinctive numerals, in *ens*, which are adverbs : as, Erſtens, in the first place; zweitens, secondly ; drittens, thirdly, &c. And the following words : Beſtens, in the best manner ; eheſtens, with the first opportunity ; meiſtens, mostly ; höchſtens, at the most; übrigens, as for the rest, in the mean time. Likewise these compounds : Allerdings, by all means ; ſchlechterdings,

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* Quintil. Inst. Or. III. 11. *Affectata subtilitas, circa nomina rerum ambitiosè laborans.*

by any means; allerſeits, on all sides; dießſeits, on this side: jenſeits, on the other side; beiderſeits, on both sides; dießfalls, in this case; ſpornſtreichs, immediately; vielmahls, many times.

The adverbial *s* I consider as being, originally, the characteristick of the genitive case. For, in the first place, it is certain, that the letter *s* is generally used, in the German language, to mark that case. With this power, it is not confined to words of the masculine, or neuter gender, though it is chiefly appropriated to them; but it may also be subjoined to nouns feminine, when no other mode of distinction is at hand. Thus it is right to say, Flora's Schönheiten, the beauties of Flora, though Flora is a feminine; Dian'ens ſtrenge Tugend, Diana's severe virtue*. In the next place, the genitive case occurs absolutely, that is to say, without being governed by any other word; where a case with a preposition might be expected, as is seen in these examples: Abends, or des Abends, for an dem Abend, in the evening; Morgens, or des Morgens, in the morning; Mittags, or des Mittags, at noon; Montags, on Monday; Dienſtags, on Tuesday, &c.† Also with adjectives: as, Gerades Weges, straightways; keines Weges, by no means; widrigen Falles,

* See p. 172.

† The genitive expresses, sometimes, state, or condition: as, der Meinung ſeyn, to be of opinion; Vorhabens ſeyn, to be in the intention; Unmuthes ſeyn, to be in a state of displeasure, or in a state of dejection, to be displeased, to be dejected.

in case of any thing contrary happening; allen Falles, at all events; folgenden Tages, on the following day. In all these instances, the genitive case is characterised by the final *s*. This is even applied to nouns of the feminine gender: as, Nachts, in the night; Mittwochs, on Wednesday (supposing it to be from die Mittwoche). And as these words, on account of the adventitious *s*, resemble the masculine, or neuter gender, the article of either of those genders is sometimes prefixed: as, des Nachts, des Mittwochs. But nouns feminine, having the characteristick *s*, are also found with adjectives, and pronouns, in their own gender, before them. For example, meiner Seits, on my part, from die Seite, the side; aller Seits on all parts. In dießseits, on this side; jenseits, on the other side, a contraction has taken place: for, analogous to the former, it should be dieser Seits, jener Seits. In allerdings, which evidently comes from aller Dinge, that *s* accompanies even the plural number. It is, moreover, discovered in the composition of several words, which have been elsewhere* mentioned, such as, Achtserklärung, from die Acht: Hülfsmittel, from die Hülfe; Geburtstag, from die Geburt.

Thus it is shown, that nouns substantive, in the genitive, may stand, where, according to common grammar, a case with a preposition would be required: and farther, that those genitives are generally distinguished by the addition of the letter *s*. Now it may be said, as adverbs serve to express, in one word, the meaning of two

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* P. 178. III.

or more (for example, *wisely*, instead of *with wisdom**): that, on the other hand, those genitive cases of substantives have the signification of adverbs. In that light many of them are, at present, viewed, and written in the same manner, as adverbs. For instance; Keinesweges, by no means; allenfalls, at all events; diesseits, on this side; jenseits, on the other side; allerdings, by all means. In short, the *s* of the genitive case is to be looked upon as an adverbial characteristick.† For the steps, that

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* See Lindley Murray's Grammar, p. 85.

† The adverbializing *s*, as it is called by an anonymous writer, in the Monthly Magazine, for February 1802, p. 307, exists in the English language: for example, in the words, *forwards*, *backwards*, *onwards*, *upwards*, *downwards*, *homewards*, *besides*, *straightways*, *perhaps*, *thus*; to which may be added, as that writer observes, *once*, *twice*, *thrice*, *hence*, *thence*, *whence*, *since*, *otherwise*; for the sound, at the end of these words, is that of *s*, though the spelling is different. It is to be found in the Dutch language, as he remarks, for instance, in these adverbs, *onlangs*, *dikwyls*, *eertyds*, *werwaards*, *derwaards*; to which may be joined many others, such as, *daags*, *dagelyks*, *jaarlyks*, *doorgaans*, *immidels*, *eens*, *eensdeels*, *eensklaps*, *eensgangs*, *eensloefs*, *ergens*, *effentjes*, *fyntjes*, *weekjes*, *weetens*, *geenzins*, *vroejes*. And we add, not only in this, but likewise in the other Teutonick dialects, for instance, the Swedish, and Danish. To mention some adverbs in each, you have in the Swedish, *således*,

leads to this conclusion naturally follow one after the other; and there remains no difficulty in accounting for the final *s* in those words, with which this disquisition commenced. Namely, from substantives the adverbial *s* was transferred to adjectives, and participles: and by its assistance adverbs were formed. To explain this yet farther, certain substantives may be understood and those expressions be regarded as elliptical.* But as it would not be easy to find appropriate words for filling up the supposed ellipsis, in every situation, the notion must suffice, that, in imitation of the genitive cases of substantives, the characteristick *s* has been assigned to adjectives, and participles, for the purpose of producing

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sjölepes, ens, medens, merendels, sqättals, and others; in the Danish, *ensteds, etsteds, nogensteds, nogenledens, fireslags, iilends, imedens, indbyrdes,* &c. And it may be noticed, that, in these tongues, the characteristick *s* of the genitive asserts its claims in several compound substantives, in the same manner as in the German language. Examples: Dutch, *Oorlogsdaad, oorlogsgebruik, oorlogsgoed, oorlogsschip, oorlogskunde, hondsnest, hondsgras, hemelsbrod;* Swedish; *Arbetstag, arbetslön, bergsbo, bergsbruk, försvarsskrift, handelssed, sädesart;* Danish, *Aarstid, hiertensven, krigsbrug, krigsfange, krigsraad, landsherre, landsmand.* That this is the case in English, is well known: for ex. in *bondsman, kinsman, spokesman, salesman.*

* Something of this kind has been attempted, p. 220, II

adverbs. Most of them end simply in *s*: as, Folgends, subsequently; nachgehends, afterwards; öfters, repeatedly; ſtracks, straightways; vollends, to a great degree; and those mentioned before. Some, which are made of superlative degrees, or ordinal numbers, terminate in *ens*: as, Schönſtens, in the finest manner; letztens, lately, the other day; viertens, fourthly; fünftens, fifthly, &c.

It will be understood, that though *s* is an adverbial termination, it is not permitted to create, by its means, new adverbs, at pleasure, without the strictest analogy. It is, indeed, most safe to abstain from such novelties, and to be contented with what already exists, on good authority.

It has been said, in the beginning of this section, that every adjective may, by means of its first form, supply an adverb. Such an adverb may then, like the adjective, be carried through the degrees of comparison. For ex. Schön, beautifully; ſchöner, more beautifully; am ſchönſten, most beautifully.* The superlative degree is produced by prefixing am, and terminating the word by the syllable en.† There are a few adverbs, which dispense with that prefix and termination, and appear in the naked superlative form. For ex. Aeußerſt, extremely; höchſt, (most) highly; jüngſt, latterly, lately. But in these, the superlative degree is almost forgotten, and they are considered as mere adverbs, having an intensive power.

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* See Chap. II, Sect. 5.

† See p. 205, 5.

CHAPTER VII.

ON THE PREPOSITION.

Containing.

1. *The Prepositions with the Genitive Case.*
2. *Those with the Dative.*
3. *With the Accusative.*
4. *With the Dative and Accusative.*

SECTION I.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE GENITIVE CASE.

Anſtatt, or Statt, instead of.—Die Statt, denotes a place, and is the same as the English *stead;* anſtatt, therefore, means literally, in the place of, like the English *instead.* Sometimes it is separated: as, An des Bruders Statt, instead of the brother: where it resumes the nature of a substantive. Thus in English, *in his stead,* for, instead of him; *in its stead,* for, instead of it.—Statt, as a preposition, is an abridgment of anſtatt.

Befage, pursuant, according to.

Halben, or Halber, on account of. It expresses a motive; and is always put after the case it governs. Halben, seems to be preferred, when the substantive, to which it is joined, has an article, or pronoun, before

it: as, Des Geldes halben, on account of the money; but halber, is generally used, when there is no article: as, Vergnügens halber, on account, or for the sake, of pleasure. It occurs abbreviated in deßhalb, on that, account; weßhalb, on which account; and in the four following compound prepositions.

Außerhalb, without, on the outside of.

Innerhalb, within, in the inner part of.

Oberhalb, above, on the upper side of.

Unterhalb, below, on the lower side of.*

Dießeits, on this side of; Lat. *cis:* as, Dießeits des Flusses, on this side of the river.

Jenseits, on the farther side of; Lat. *trans:* as, Jenseits des Flusses, on the other side of the river.

Kraft, by the power of.

Laut, according to, conformably to, by the tendency of: as, Laut des Befehls, according to the order, or, by the tendency of the order.

Mittelst, or Vermittelst, by the means of.

Um-willen, for the sake of: as, Um Gottes willen, for God's sake; um Ihrer Ehre willen, for the sake of your honour.

Ungeachtet, (or Ohngeachtet), notwithstanding. It may be placed before, or after, its case. Sometimes it is found with the dative: as, Dem ungeachtet, notwithstanding that. Ohngeachtet is not so proper, as, Ungeachtet.

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* Those four prepositions sometimes govern the dative case; and this is to be preferred, when another genitive follows. Example: Er stehet innerhalb dem Ziele seiner Ungnade, he is within the scope of his displeasure.

Unweit, not far from: as, Unweit des Dorfes, not far from the village.

Vermöge, by dint of, by the power of, by means of: as, Vermöge der Uebung, by dint of practice; vermöge des Fleiſſes, by means of diligence.

Während, during: as, Während des Krieges, during the war.

Wegen, 1. because of, on account of: as, Ich that es meines Vaters wegen, I did it because of my father. 2. Concerning, with regard to, relating to: as, Er ſprach mit mir wegen des Hauſes, he spoke to me concerning the house. It may stand before, or after, the word it governs; most commonly it is put before.

Längs, along, is found with the genitive. See the next page.

Zufolge, in consequence of, occurs with the genitive; generally it governs the dative.

Außer, out of, has the genitive case after it, in one instance, viz. außer Landes, out of the country. See the next section.

SECTION II.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE DATIVE CASE.

Aus, out of.

Außer, 1. out of, on the outside of: as, Außer dem Hauſe, out of the house. 2. Out of, not within, passing the bounds of, in a state of deviation from: as, Außer Ordnung, out of order; außer Stande, out of condition; ich

war außer mir, I was beside myself, I was deprived of the use of my senses. 3. Besides, over and above: as, Außer den Bürgern von London kamen auch viele Fremde, besides the citizens of London, many strangers also came. It takes the genitive in one phrase, viz. außer Landes, out of the country, abroad.

Bey, See Sect. IV.

Entgegen, 1. towards, so as to meet; united with verbs motion: as, Wir wollen unserm Freunde entgegen gehen, we will go to meet our friend; der Knabe läuft seinem Vater entgegen, the boy runs to meet his father. 2. Against, opposed to, contrary to: as, Das Heer steht ihm entgegen, the army stands against him; dieß war seiner Meinung entgegen, this was against his opinion. It stands after its case.

Gegenüber, over against, opposite to: as, Dem Hause gegenüber, opposite the house. It may be divided, and gegen put before the case: as, Gegen dem Hause über.

Längs, along: as, Längs dem Flusse, along the river. Sometimes with the genitive: as, Noch so viele längs seines Zuges durch Deutschland zurückgelassene Besitzungen, hatten sein Heer nicht vermindert,* not even the many possessions he left behind him, along his route through Germany, had diminished his army. It is also found with the accusative, but this is quite provincial.

Mit, with.

Nach, 1. after, posterior in time, behind. 2. To, in

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* Geschichte des dreissigjährigen Krieges, von F. Schiller, Vol. iii, p. 500.

a direction to, towards; with names of places, and verbs of motion: as, Dieſer Mann reiſ't nach Deutſchland, this man travels to Germany; wenn gehen Sie nach der Stadt, when do you go to town; laſſen Sie uns nach Hauſe gehen, let us go home. 3. It notes what may be called concomitant direction, in certain phrases: as, Der Naſe nach, following your nose, straight forward; dem Strome nach, following the stream; dem Striche nach, following the grain. And in these instances, it stands after the case it governs. 4. According to: as, Nach der Beſchreibung des Livius, according to the account of Livy. In the signification last mentioned, it may be put after its case, when no other word is governed by, and follows after, that case: as, Der Beſchreibung nach, according to the description; ſeiner Geburt nach, according to his birth; ſeiner Herkunft nach, according to his origin, by origin; meiner Meinung nach, according to, or in, my opinion; dem Anſehen nach, according to appearance. But if the substantive were to have another substantive after it, which it governed, the preposition must stand before its case: as, Nach der Beſchreibung des Livius.

Nebſt, (or, Benebſt), together with, besides, including —Benebſt, is provincial.

Ob, over, on, at, during, on account of. It is not much in use.

Es ſtutzt ob ſolchem Getöſe das Wild, und eilet von dannen.

Kleiſt, Frühling p. 28.

Sammt, together with; almost obsolete.

Seit, since. Seitdem, since that time, is used as a conjunction, or an adverb.

Von, 1. notes an agent, Eng. by, Lat. *a, ab:* as, Das

Haus iſt von dem Könige erbaut, the house was built by the king; das Buch iſt von ihm geſchrieben, that book is written by him. 2. Of. 3. From. 4. With an following, it marks extent of time: as, Von der erſten Kindheit an, from the first infancy.

Zu, 1. to: as, Komm zu mir, come to me. 2. At, of place: as, zu Windſor, at Windsor; zu Hauſe, at home; zu Waſſer, by water, at sea; zur See, at sea; zu Lande, on land. 3. At, of time: as, zu jener Zeit, at that time. 4. At, of proportion: as, Die Guinee zu ein und zwanzig Schillingen, the guinea at twenty-one shillings; das Pfund zu ſechzehn Unzen gerechnet, the pound reckoned at sixteen ounces. 5. On: as, Zu Pferde, on horseback; zu Fuße, on foot. 6. It notes the transition, or transformation, to a certain state: as, Zum Könige wählen, to elect a person king; zum Thoren machen, to make a fool of a person; zum Narren werden, to be made a fool of.—In English, the preposition *to* forms the dative; in German, as that case is distinguished by the article, and frequently also by the termination of the substantive, zu must not be employed, except where motion, place, direction, are to be expressed.—Zu is in certain circumstances, like the English *to*, found before the infinitive mood, as will be shown, in the IId Part of the Grammar.—It is used as an adverb, and signifies as such: 1: the shutting or closing of a thing: as, Mach die Thür zu, shut the door; iſt das Fenſter zu, is the window shut? 2. Haste: as, Geh zu, go on; fahre zu, drive on. 3. Too, overmuch: as, Zu viel, too much.

Zufolge, in consequence of, according to. Always put after the dative; it is sometimes, but rarely, joined

to a genitive case, which it precedes: as, Zufolge Ihres Befehles, in consequence of your order.

Zuwider, against, in opposition to. After the case.

The following prepositions: Außerhalb, without; innerhalb, within; oberhalb, above; unterhalb, below; ungeachtet, notwithstanding—sometimes take the dative case; but most commonly the genitive. See Sect. I.

SECTION III.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE ACCUSATIVE.

Durch, 1. through. 2. By, noting an instrument, or means: as, Durch einen Piſtolenſchuß getödtet, killed by a pistol shot; durch Sturm erobert, taken by storm. 3. It notes duration, when it is put after: as, Die ganze Nacht durch, all the night through; das ganze Jahr durch, all the year through. In this sense, hindurch, which is an adverb, is also frequently used, die ganze Nacht hindurch, &c.

Für, for.

Gegen, 1. to, towards; expressing direction, and tendency. 2. Against.—Gen, is an ancient abbreviation of gegen, not in use at present; except in a few phrases, as, gen Himmel, to, or towards, heaven.

Ohne, without, not with, Fr. *sans*.

Sonder, the same in signification, as the former, but not much used. It can only be put, when the substantive has no article: Sonder Geiſt, without spirit; ſonder Zweifel, without doubt.

Um, 1. around, about: as, Um den Tiſch ſitzen, to sit about the table; um die Stadt gehen, to go around the town, that is to say, round the circumference of the town. 2. It signifies succession, change, vicissitude: as, Einen Tag um den andern, every other day. 3. A loss: as, Um etwas kommen, to lose a thing; es iſt um ihn geſchehen, it is over with him, he is lost; der Menſch hat mich um mein Geld betrogen, the man has cheated me out of my money. 4. It marks an object: as, Um Geld ſpielen, to play for money; um den Sieg fechten, to fight for the victory. 5. A comparison: as, Um zwey Drittel reicher, more rich by two thirds; um zehn Jahre jünger, younger by ten years. 6. It expresses a reference, with respect to, as far as relates to: for example, Es iſt eine ungewiſſe Sache um den Krieg, as for the war, it is an uncertain thing; wie ſteht es um ihre Geſundheit, how is it with respect to your health?—Um sometimes precedes the preposition zu, before the infinitive; and indicates purpose, and design: as, Um zu ſchreiben, for the purpose of writing.—As an adverb, um denotes a circuit: as, Dieſer Weg iſt um, this way is about —; and conclusion: as, das Jahr iſt um, the year is brought to a conclusion, has passed through its circle. Um und um, means, on all sides.

Wider, against, in opposition to.

SECTION IV.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE DATIVE AND ACCUSATIVE CASES.

These prepositions depend, for the most part, upon the notion of locality, with which they are connected, to determine the case they are to govern. If a state of rest, or permanent locality, is understood, the dative case is required to be joined with them: and the accusative should be made use of, when motion *to* a place is signified. That distinction may be rendered easy and intelligible, by applying the questions, *where*, *in* what place? and *whereto*, *to* what place? A few examples will show this. An, means on, near to, against. Der Tiſch ſteht an der Wand, the table stands near, or against, the wall. Here the preposition governs the dative: for the question, where, *in* what place? may be applied—where, *in* what place does the table stand? and a state of rest, or permanent locality, is intimated. In the following: Setze den Tiſch an die Wand, put the table against the wall; a motion *to* the place is implied, and the preposition united with the accusative. The table is to be moved to some place, and naturally the question, whereto, *to* what place? is suggested. Thus with auf, upon: Das Buch liegt auf dem Tiſche, the book lies upon the table. Dative case; where, in what place? Legen Sie das Buch auf den Tiſch, lay the book upon the table: accusative. The book is to be moved to some place, and the question may be put, whereto, to what place? Hinter,

behind: Er ſteht hinter mir, he stands behind me. Dative; question, where, in what place? Kommen Sie hinter mich, come behind me: accusative, for here a motion *to* a place is thought of. The same in the next example: Zwiſchen, between—Er ſaß zwiſchen dem Bruder und der Schweſter, he sat between the brother and the sister; dative. Er trat zwiſchen den Bruder und die Schweſter, he stept between the brother and the sister; accusative. Hence In, with the dative case, signifies *in;* and with the accusative, *into.* The question depends upon the idea of motion, or permanency: the latter requires the dative, the former the accusative. When that idea is not precisely determined, an uncertainty likewise arises in the use of the cases. For example, Ein Haus auf dem Berge bauen, to build a house upon the mountain; auf, with the dative: and, ein Haus auf den Berg bauen; auf, with the accusative. If the notion prevails, that the operation of building is carrying on, *in* such a place, the dative case is proper. But if motion be imagined, by which, through the process of building, a house is, as it were, conveyed upon the mountain, then the question, whereto, to what place? presents itself; and the accusative may be admitted. Das Heer lagert ſich auf dem Berge, the army encamps upon the mountain. Here is the dative case, after auf, in consequence of the question, where? But the accusative may stand, if, in idea, motion, towards the mountain, precedes the act of encamping: Das Heer lagert ſich auf den Berg. Sometimes, those two cases involve a difference of signification. For, Der Knabe läuft in dem Garten, (in with the dative), and der Knabe läuft in den Garten, (accusative), greatly differ in meaning. The former ex-

presses, the boy runs, or takes the exercise of running, in the garden; and the latter, he runs into the garden. Er reitet auf dem Berge (dative), he rides, takes the exercise of riding, upon the mountain; and er reitet auf den Berg, (accusative), he rides to the top of the mountain.

An, *on, with the Dative*, notes, 1. locality, at, on, near, in: as, An einem Orte wohnen, to live at a place; an dem Ufer eines Fluſſes, on the bank of a river; an der Thür, at the door; also, upon the door; an meiner Stelle, in my place. 2. The object of an action, in, at: as, Die Verdienſte des Vaters an dem Kinde belohnen, to reward the merits of the father in the child; mein Freund arbeitet an einem Buche, my friend works at, or is engaged in, a book. 3. A cause, by, of: as, Der junge Menſch iſt an einer Auszehrung geſtorben, that young man died of a consumption. 4. A state, condition, manner, in, by: as, Reich an Freunden, rich in friends; groß an Ruhme, great in fame; ſchwach an Verſtande, weak in understanding; man kennt den Vogel an den Federn und das Silber an dem Klinge, the bird is known by its plumage, and the silver by its sound. To this signification the first, or adverbial, form of the superlative degree may be referred:* as, Am ſchönſten, in the finest manner; am beſten, in the best manner. And the expression, am Leben, living, alive: as, Er iſt noch am Leben, he is still alive.† 5. Time, in, at, on: as, Am Anfange,

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* See. p. 205, 5.

† Thus, in old English, *on life*. Sir David Lindsay's Poetical Works: *Auld Willie Dillie, were he on lyve.* The adjective *alive* may have come from that expression.

at the beginning; am dritten Tage, on the third day. 6. When combined with von, it signifies extent of time: as, Von dieſem Tage an, from this day forth.

An, *with the Accusative*, expresses, 1, direction, to: as, An einen Freund ſchreiben, to write to a friend; ich werde, das Buch an meinen Bruder ſchicken, I shall send the book to my brother. 2. An object: as, An eine Sache glauben, to believe in a thing; an etwas denken, to think of, to remember, a thing. 3. Extent of space, and time, when connected with Bis: for example, Bis an die See, as far as the sea; bis an den Abend, to, or until, this evening.

Auf, upon, *with the Dative*, notes, 1. the locality of a higher place, upon, on, in: as, Auf dem Thurme, upon the tower; auf dem Berge, upon the mountain; auf dem Dache, upon the roof; auf dem Schloſſe, on, or in, the castle, Likewise, auf der Stube, or auf dem Zimmer, in the room, or in the apartment, if the room, or the apartment, is in the upper story of a house, and the person speaking, below. If it be on the floor, or in the same story with the person speaking, the preposition in, is generally made use of, in der Stube, in dem Zimmer. 2. It signifies locality, in general: for example, Auf dem Dorfe ſeyn, to be in the village; auf dem Lande wohnen, to live in the country; auf der Jagd, at the chace; auf dem Balle, at the ball; auf der Poſt, at the post-office; auf der Gaſſe, in the street; auf der Univerſität, or plur. auf Univerſitäten, at the university; auf der Schule, or plur. auf Schulen, at school; auf der Reiſe, on the journey, or plur. auf Reiſen, on one's travels.

Auf, *with the Accusative*, has the two foregoing significations, attended with the question *whereto?* and there-

fore denotes, 1. direction to a higher place: as, Auf den Thurm ſteigen, to mount upon the tower, &c. 2. Local direction, in general: as, Auf das Land reiſen, to travel, or to go, into the country; auf den Ball gehen, to go to the ball; auf die Gaſſe laufen, to run into the street. 3. It notes an object; and may be variously rendered, in English. For instance, Auf eine Sache, denken, to think of a thing; aufmerkſam auf etwas ſeyn, to attend to a thing; auf jemanden zürnen, to be incensed against somebody; auf einen Freund warten, to wait for a friend. 4. It notes proportion: as, Eine Mahlzeit auf vier Perſonen, a dinner for four persons; ſo viel auf den Mann, so much upon the man. 5. Extent, when preceded by Bis: as, Bis auf den letzten Pfennig, up to the last farthing; bis auf den letzten Blutstropfen, to the last drop of blood; bis auf vier Thaler, up to four dollars. 6. It signifies a way and manner: as, Auf Deutſche Art, in the German way; auf Engliſchen Fuß, in the English manner. Thus, auf Deutſch, in German; auf Franzöſiſch, in French; auf Engliſch, in English—applied to the languages. To this may be added the expressions, with the superlative degree of adjectives: as, Auf das, or aufs, beſte, in the best manner; aufs vortrefflichſte, in the most excellent manner*. Likewise the following: Auf Angriff, upon attack, or upon the offensive; auf den Hieb, literally, upon the cut, as with the broad sword; auf den Stoß, or auf den Stich, upon the thrust, or point, as with the small sword. 7. It means in consequence of, pursuant to: as, Auf Befehl, in consequence of an order, pursuant to an order.

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* See p. 206.

8. It notes future time: as, Auf den Montag, on Monday, or next Monday. 9. Duration of time: as, Vorrath auf viele Jahre, store for many years; auf zwey Monathe, for two months; auf kurze Zeit, for a short time.—Auf einmal, at once.—Auf, as an adverb, answers to the English *up*: as, Steh auf, get up. It is put before the conjunction daß, to signify purpose, or design: as, Auf daß, in order that, for the purpose that. It is used as an interjection, to animate, and encourage: as, Auf! folget mir, come, follow me.

Bey.* *with the Dative*, notes 1. proximity, by the side of, beside, near to, by, Lat. *juxta*: as, Er steht bey dem Könige, he stands by, or near, the king. 2. With,

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* The preposition Bey, was, in the two first editions, placed in the 2d. Section, among those, which exclusively govern the dative case. This was done in deference to Mr. Adelung's authority; but I found it necessary, upon consideration, to remove it to its present station. The reasons for this change were: 1. Analogy, as stated in the next page. 2. Prevailing usage, in the greatest part (as I conceive) of Germany. 3. The authority of respectable writers; and lastly 4. the decision of some eminent grammarians. Mr. Adelung insists, that it is against the idiom of the High German, to join that preposition with the accusative; and yet he finds it with this case, in several passages of Luther's translation of the Bible: which surely is no indifferent authority in a question, touching the High German. See Adelung's Dictionary, and compare with it that of Campe.

in company of, Fr. *chez, auprès de :* as, Der Arzt iſt bey ihm geweſen, the physician has been with him. 3. At, present at, with, noting co-existence of time: as, Bey der Schöpfung, at the creation; bey dem Gedanken, at the thought; bey allen dem blieb er unentſchloſſen, with all that he remained irresolute. 4. It serves for quotation; in Lat. *apud*, Fr. *chez :* as, Bey dem Plato, in Plato: beym Cicero, in Cicero. 5. For swearing, and obtesting, by, upon: as, Bey Jupiter, by Jove; bey meiner Ehre, upon my honour.

Bey, *with the Accusative*, is used in the first signification, when motion to a place is implied: as, Setzen ſie ſich bey mich, seat yourself near me; lege dieſe Feder bey das Papier, put this pen by the paper; tritt bey deinen Bruder, go, and stand by your brother. Thus it is current in a great, and perhaps the greatest, part of Germany; and is by analogy, since it denotes locality, as much entitled to the two cases, as other prepositions.

By, in English, frequently expresses the agent, cause, or instrument; which power is never assigned, to the German Bey.

Hinter, behind, governs, like the other prepositions, *the Dative* case, with the question *where?* and *the Accusative*, with the question *whereto?*—When connected with the particle her—hinter-her, behind, after, following—it only admits the dative. For example, Ich ging hinter dem Manne her, I walked after the man, I followed him; er kommt hinter mir her, he comes after me.

In, *with the Dative*, in.

In, *with the Accusative*, 1. into. 2. With Bis, it marks extent of space, or time: as, Bis in das Zimmer,

as far as the chamber; bis in die Nacht, till night; bis in Ewigkeit, to eternity.

Neben, beside, at the side of, Lat. *juxta.*

Ueber, *with the Dative*, 1. over, above; with respect to place. 2. Above; with respect to excellence, or rank. 3. During: with respect to time, or occupation: as, Ueber der Arbeit, while at work; über dem Lesen, while reading; über Tische, at dinner, while at table.

Ueber, *with the Accusative*, 1. over, implying motion. 2 Above, beyond, signifying excess: as, Ueber meine Kräfte, beyond my strength; über vierzig Jahre, above forty years. 3. With the adverb Bis, it expresses extent: as, Bis über die Ohren, over the ears. 4. It notes a cause, about, on account of: as, Sich über eine Sache ärgern, to be vexed on account of a certain thing; sich über etwas grämen, to grieve about something. 5. It marks an object, upon, concerning: as, Ueber einen gewissen Gegenstand sprechen, schreiben, to speak, or write, upon a certain subject; über die Tugend, upon virtue; über das Laster, upon vice. 6. It signifies future time, when it is placed before the case: as, Heute über acht Tage, from this day se'nnight, or in a se'nnight from hence; über das, or übers, Jahr, next year; über Nacht, to night; über lang oder kurz, literally, over long, or short, that means, some time or other. 7. It also expresses continuance of time, or duration, when it is put after: as, Den Sommer über, during the summer; das Jahr über, during the year, or the year through; den Tag über, during the day.

Unter, *with the Dative*, and *Accusative*, 1. under, beneath. 2. Among. 3. With the *Dative*, it has the power of denoting time, in, under, during: as, Unter der

Regierung Georg des dritten, in the reign of George the third; unter dem Eſſen, during dinner, while at dinner; unter dem Leſen, while reading. In this sense, it seems to have formerly governed the genitive case: for there exists a provincial expression, unter Tages, during the day; and another, which is in general use, unter Weges, on the way; both of them construed with that case.

Vor, before, *With the Dative and Accusative.*—With the *Dative*, it sometimes involves a cause: as, Vor dem Feinde fliehen, to fly from the enemy;* vor dem Tode erſchrecken, to be frightened at death; vor Freude weinen, to weep for joy; vor Lachen zerplatzen, to burst with laughing; vor Gram ſterben, to die with grief. With the same case it also denotes time past, signifying *ago:* as, Vor drey Jahren, three years ago.

Zwiſchen, between. It is sometimes, but improperly, used instead of Unter, among.

Additional Remarks on the Prepositions.

I. The proper use of the prepositions requires an intimate acquaintance with the character of the German language. For it is not sufficient to render them literally: but the peculiar nature of every expression must be considered. The phrase, which, in English, demands such a preposition, may, in German, have one totally different in signification; one language may employ *for*, where the other will use *upon*, *with*, &c. It is, therefore, not enough to peruse a list of the prepositions; but

* In English the phrase might also be, *to fly before the enemy*, in which, however, a different idea prevails.

it is necessary to attend to their application, in phraseology.

II. The prepositions are always placed before their cases, a few only excepted. In English, a preposition may be put quite at the end of the sentence; and this must be done, when the relative pronoun is to be understood: as, *The man I spoke of*, for, *the man of whom I spoke; the books he referred to*, for, *the books to which he referred; the subject I am engaged in*, for, *in which I am engaged.* Nor is it unusual with interrogative pronouns: as, *Who for? who to? what for? who is this money for? what is that for!* These modes of speaking are common, in English; but the German language neither allows the omission of the relative pronoun, nor the transposing of the preposition.

III. It has been remarked, in the foregoing pages,* that instead of pronouns demonstrative, relative, and interrogative, the local adverbs, hier, da, wo, are joined with prepositions: as, hiermit, hiervon; damit, daran, daneben, daraus, darüber; wobey, woran, &c. Namely, hier, here, (which, in this composition, is sometimes changed into hie, as hiemit,) holds the place of the demonstrative, dieſer; da, there, is put for derſelbe, or der; wo, where, for welcher, wer, was. The preposition in, combined with such an adverb, is made ein, when it signifies *into.* Say, therefore, Es iſt darin, it is *in* it; but, thue es darein, put it *into* it. So hierin, herein, in this; herein, in

* P. 242, 10, and 250, 8.

here, into this place.—Those adverbs are, occasionally, separated from the prepositions: as, Da habe ich nicht an gedacht, for, daran habe ich nicht gedacht, of that I have not thought; da hüten Sie ſich vor, for, davor hüten Sie ſich, beware of that; da hat er keine Neigung zu, for, dazu hat er keine Neigung, for that he has no inclination; wo einem vor ekelt, for, wovor einem ekelt, which one loathes. It is better to preserve those words united. The separation is, however, very usual in these phrases: Da ſey Gott vor, God forbid; da Gott vor ſey, which God forbid.—The following contractions are to be met with: Dran, drauf, draus, drein, drin, drunter, drüber, drum, &c. for daran, darauf, daraus, darein, darin, darunter, darüber, darum; but they are improper. It may be noticed, that prepositions are permitted to stand before adverbs, as in English: for instance, Von hier, from hence; von da, von dort, from thence, from yonder; von oben, from above; von unten, from below; ſeit geſtern, since yesterday: auf heute, for to-day.

IV. Some prepositions coalesce with the definite article. With the dative, masculine, and neuter, dem, the following: An, in, von, zu. An dem, becomes am; in dem, im: von dem, vom; zu dem, zum. With the dative feminine, der, zu only: as, Zur, for zu der. With the accusative neuter, das: An, auf, durch, für, in: as, Ans, for an das; aufs, for auf das; durchs, for durch das; fürs, for für das; ins, for in das*.—There are other coalitions, but

* Wieland has a spurious contraction ins, from in des, of the preposition with a case, which does not belong to

not equally sanctioned by good language: as, Vorẽ, from vor das; vorm, for vor dem; übern, from über den; überẽ, from über das, unterm, from unter dem; unterẽ, from unter das. With regard to those first mentioned, they may either be adopted, or the preposition be put to the article, without being incorporated with it. In some phrases, however, the contraction alone is admitted: as, Am Anfange, or im Anfange, at, or in the beginning; am Leben, alive; am beſten, am ſchönſten, in the best, in the finest manner; zur Noth, if necessary.

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it: for des is the genitive. See *Wieland's Sämmtlich Werke. Supplement*, 1 Band, p. 47, last line, and p. 68, line 3. It is entirely wrong, and can be called nothing else but negligence in writing.

CHAPTER VIII.

ON THE CONJUNCTION.

CONJUNCTIONS are particles, which serve to connect words and sentences, and to bring them into a certain relation with one another. As this connexion, and relation, may be effected in different ways, the conjunctions may, accordingly, be divided into various classes. Those, which merely join: for instance, *and*, *also*, &c. may be denominated COPULATIVE; those, which imply opposition: as, *either*, *or*, *neither*, *nor*, *though*, *although*, *yet*, *nevertheless*, &c. DISJUNCTIVE. Some note a condition: as, *if*, *otherwise*, &c.; and may be called CONDITIONAL. Others a cause: as, *for*, *because*, *since*, *therefore*, &c. CAUSAL. Some make a comparison: for instance, *as*, *so*, *like*, *than*, &c.; these may be named COMPARATIVE. And those which refer to time, or the succession of events: for example, *then*, *when*, *while*, *before*, *after*, &c. may either be styled TEMPORAL, or CONSECUTIVE.

That classification may be made still more precise, and minute; and the distinction rendered more accurate. But this is rather an object for speculation, than for practical purposes. Let it suffice, for our views, to subjoin a list of the most obvious German conjunctions, in

alphabetical order, accompanied with the necessary observations.

Aber, but. It does not always place the sentences in opposition, but like the Latin, *autem*, *vero*, sometimes only joins them; in other words, it has not only a disjunctive, but also a copulative power.

Allein, but, Lat. *sed*, *at*, is merely disjunctive.

Als, has, 1. a comparative signification, expressing *as*, and *than*: for instance, So warm als im Sommer, as warm, as in summer; reicher als Crösus, more rich than Crœsus. 2. It notes quality, and condition: as, Ich als Herr von diesem Hause, I as master of this house. 3. It is temporal, or consecutive, and signifies *when*: Als ich in London ankam, when I arrived in London.—Als wenn, as if; so wohl als auch, as well as.

Also, 1. so, thus. 2. Therefore.

Auch, also.

Auf daß, in order that.

Bevor, before; Lat. *priusquam*.

Da, 1. then. 2. When. 3. Since, as, implying a cause. As an adverb, it signifies, *there*.

Daher, therefore, thence. Adverb, daher, from that place, thence.—The conjunction has the accent, on the last; the adverb, on the first syllable. The accent, however, may vary: the conjunction may have it on the first, and the adverb on the last. Whenever it is on the first, it renders the word pointedly demonstrative.

Dafern, if, in case that.

Dann, then. Alsdann is the same in signification. Adverb, dann und wann, now and then.

Dárum, on that accent, for that reason. Darúm, therefore. When the accent is on the first syllable, it is strongly demonstrative.

Daß, that.

Denn, 1. for, because; Lat. *nam, enim.* 2. Then. 3. Unless, after some verbs in the subjunctive mood: as, Ich werde nicht ausgehen, es sey denn, daß die Noth mich zwänge. I shall not go out, unless it be, that necessity should compel me. Du sollst nicht sterben, du habest denn den Herrn gesehen, thou shalt not die unless thou have seen the Lord. It is, however, not very common in this sense, except after es sey, it be. 4. Than: Wer ist besser denn Gott, who is better than God? Ehe denn ich flöhe, sooner than I should run away. This signification is rather antiquated; modern language would prefer als, in the first example, and omit denn in the second, without substituting for it another word.

Dennoch, notwithstanding, nevertheless, still.

Derhalben, (derohalben), deßhalben, (deßhalb, or deshalb), therefore, on that account.

Desto, stands always before a comparative degree, and notes proportion; which, in English, is expressed by the definite article: for example, Ich erwartete Ihre Ankunft nicht und desto größer ist meine Freude, I did not expect your arrival, and *the* greater is my joy. When two comparative sentences are brought together, the first generally begins with the conjunction je, and desto answers it in the second: as, Je ruhiger das Leben ist, desto geschickter ist es zum Nachdenken, *the* more quiet life is, *the* more fit it is for reflection. Sometimes, desto is placed in the first member

of the sentence, and je in the second: as, Ein Kunſtwerk iſt deſto ſchöner, je vollkommener es iſt, a work of art is *th* more beautiful, *the* more perfect it is.

Dieweil, because; obsolete.

Doch, yet, nevertheless, however, but; Lat. *tamen.*

Ehe, before; Lat. *priusquam.*

Entweder, either; always followed by oder, or.

Falls, in case that. Falls es geſchehen ſollte, in case it should happen.

Ferner, farther, moreover.

Folglich, consequently.

Hingegen, on the other hand.

Je, is proportional, before a comparative degree. See Deſto.—Sometimes it is used, instead of deſto: as, Je eher, je lieber, the sooner, the more agreeable; je mehr, je beſſer, the more, the better; for, deſto lieber, deſto beſſer.—Je nachdem, acccording as.

Jedennoch, yet, nevertheless.

Jedoch, yet, the same as Doch.

Im Falle, in case that, if.

Immaßen, whereas, since.

Indem, 1. while. 2. Because, since.

Indeſſen, in the mean while.

Ingleichen, or Imgleichen, likewise.

Kaum, scarce. Kaum hatte er ausgeredet, als ihn ein plötzliches Grauſen überfiel, scarce had he finished his speech, when a sudden horrour seized him.

Mithin, consequently.

Nachdem, after; Lat. *postquam.*—Je nachdem, according as.

Nämlich, namely,

Nicht allein, nicht nur, not only; followed by ſondern auch, but also.

Noch, has two significations, so different in their nature, that it is difficult to conceive, how they can belong to the same word. 1. It denotes continuations of time: as, Noch eine Stunde, one hour more; noch vier oder fünf Wochen, four or five weeks more. It answers to the English, yet, still. Noch nicht, not yet. 2. It has a negative power, expressing the English *nor*, when weder, *neither*, has preceded.

Nun, now.

Ob, whether, if.

Obgleich, Obſchon, Obwohl, though, although. These conjunctions are often divided: as, Ob ich gleich krank war, although I was ill; ob er ſchon zu Hauſe war, though he was at home. That separation generally, and almost necessarily, takes place, when a monosyllable follows; such as, Ich, du, er, es, wir, ihr, ſie, or the oblique cases of these pronouns. Even two, or three of these monosyllables may be put between: as, Ob ich mich gleich freue, though I am glad; ob wir uns ihm gleich gezeigt haben, though we have shown ourselves to him. With other words it is optional, whether those conjunctions are to be divided, or not. When they begin a sentence, the following member corresponds to them by means of the conjunctions doch, dennoch; or similar particles, as, demungeachtet, notwithstanding that; nichts-deſto weniger, nevertheless. Ob er gleich alt iſt, ſo hat er doch den völligen Gebrauch ſeiner Geiſteskräfte, although he is old, he still has the perfect use of his mental faculties.

Oder, or.

Ohngeachtet, notwithstanding. It is not so correct, as Ungeachtet.

Seit, Seitdem, since, from the time that.

Sintemal, or Sintemalen, because, since; antiquated.

So, 1. so, thus, 2. It serves to connect the subsequent member of a sentence with the foregoing, commonly, when the conjunctions, wenn, when; weil, da, nachdem, wie, damit, obgleich, obschon, precede, and almost always after wenn, if, beginning the sentence. For example, Wenn mein Bruder kömmt, so sagen Sie es ihm, when my brother comes, tell it him. Da er in Rom eintraf, so fand er die Stadt in den Händen seiner Feinde, when he arrived at Rome, he found the city in the hands of his enemies. Wenn der Knabe, fleissig ist, so kann er zu großen Ehren gelangen, if the boy be diligent, he may arrive at great honours. Sometimes, the conjunction wenn, if, is understood, in the first member; and so must likewise begin the following member: as, Wärest du hier geblieben, so würden die Sachen besser stehen, hadst thou staid here, (which is the same as—if thou hadst staid here), affairs would be in a better condition 3. So, occasionally notes, therefore. 4. If, on condition that: as, So Gott will, if God please, or please God. 5. So wohl als auch, or so wohl als, as well as. Likewise, with the same meaning, so als; but seldom. 6. When auch follows, it is to be rendered by, *however:* So groß die Schrecken des Krieges auch seyn mögen, so konnten sie doch seinen Sinn nicht bändigen, however great the terrours of war may be, yet they could not curb his spirit. Here als is sometimes put before it: So angenehm als es auch seyn mag, so kann es doch nie gebilligt werden, agreeable as it may be, it can never be approved. And it is some-

times omitted, als remaining by itself in the same signification. Reißend als es mir war, so einförmig würde es in der Erzählung werden, attractive as it was to me, it would be monotonous in narration.*—So wie, as.

Sondern, but, disjunctive. It is only used, when a negative goes before. Nicht edel, sondern kleinmüthig, not noble, but pusillanimous.

Sonst, else, otherwise.

Theils,—theils, partly, partly.

Uebrigens, as for the rest, however.

Ueberdieß, besides.

Und, and.

Ungeachtet, notwithstanding.

Während, während dem, während daß, while.

Wann, for wenn, when, provincial. Adverb, Dann und wann, now and then.

Weder, neither, followed by noch, nor.

Weil, because. (Sometimes, while.)

Wenn, 1. When. Thus it is synonymous with Da, (als, wie; for these occur under the same meaning, as da); though it is differently applied. Da, is always connected with preterite tenses, and declares an action that is passed. Wenn, on the other hand, refers to what is present, or future. It is, therefore, peculiarly appropriated to convey general ideas; whereas Da relates to particular events. This will be better understood, from some examples. Da er nach London kam, so fand er seinen Freund, when he came to

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* See Elements of German Grammar. Appendix, Sect. IV. note 47.

London, he found his friend. *He came*, and *he found*, are preterite tenses: the actions that are intimated, are passed, and consequently, Da must be employed, to express *When*. Wenn ich zu ihm komme, ſo finde ich ihn immer bey den Büchern, when I come to him, I always find him at his books. *I come*, *I find*, are present tenses, and the subject is of a general import; therefore, Wenn is made use of. In the following, one verb is in the future, the other in the present; and Wenn is likewise required, to answer to the English *When*. Wenn ihr meine Stimme hören werdet, ſo eilt, when you shall hear my voice, hasten. Wenn ſie nach Paris kommen, ſo werden Sie die alten Kunſtwerke nicht mehr ſehen, when you come to Paris, you will no longer see the ancient works of art. The use of Wenn entirely depends upon the time of the action: when that is considered as gone by, wenn is *not* to be employed; but when the action is present, or yet to come, then it is the right conjunction. It may, therefore, stand before the perfect tense, when the action alluded to, is not really passed, but only stated as such, by anticipation: for example, Wenn Sie dieß verrichtet haben, ſo ſchreiben Sie mir, when you have done this, write to me. On the other hand, the historical style, to enliven the narration, sometimes assumes the present for the past tense. But still the action it refers to, is passed; and wenn, under these circumstances, cannot be put instead of da, wie, or als.—The English interrogative *When*, is always rendered by Wenn, never by da.—Some persons write wann, instead of wenn, with a view to distinguish the first signification of this conjunction, from the second (if). Wann, however, is nothing more than a peculiarity of the Upper German,

and in Upper Germany promiscuously denotes *when*, and *if*. 2. If, supposing that.—It never stands in the signification of *whether*, after indirect, or disjunctive questions, in which sense *if* is used by the English: in other words, it never expresses the English *whether*, or the Latin *an*. In these phrases, for example: " I do not know *if* (or *whether*) it is so: ask him, *if* (or *whether*) he has got it?"—the German Wenn could not be employed. The proper word would be, Ob.

Wenngleich, Wennſchon, although. They may be separated in the same manner as Obgleich, Obſchon.*

Wie, 1. how. 2. As, both in a comparative, and consecutive sense; as, when. Wie die Jugend, ſo das Alter, as the youth, so old age; comparative. Wie er das ſah, rief er aus, as, or when, he saw that, he exclaimed; consecutive. It also expresses *than*, though als is better adapted to this purpose.

Wiefern, how far. In wiefern, in how far.

Wiewohl, though.

Wo, sometimes stands for *if*. Otherwise it signifies *where*, and is an adverb.

Wofern, if, in case that.

Wohl, indeed, perhaps, may be; Lat. *quidem*. It has the nature of a suppletive particle, and cannot always be exactly translated. Das iſt wohl wahr, that, indeed, may be true. Wiſſen Sie wohl, do you perhaps know? As an adverb, it signifies *well*.

Zwar, indeed, it is so, allowing it; generally followed by aber, allein, doch, dennoch, or a similar disjunctive.

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* See p. 390.

Obzwar, sometimes occurs with the signification of obgleich, obſchon, although.

Some of the conjunctions appear, in certain situations, to govern the subjunctive mood; and some have the power, in the structure of a sentence, of removing the verb to the end. These circumstances will be noticed, at large, in the Second Part of the Grammar.

CHAPTER IX.

ON THE INTERJECTION.

THE interjection is arbitrarily inserted, in any sentence, to express emotion in the speaker, or writer. It is the most simple of all the parts of speech, and has justly been considered as the first element of language. Interjections were the primitive sounds, which marked the feelings of man. They are not founded upon the association of ideas; but produced by the immediate impulse of sensation. They were gradually combined, and led to the formation of words. As they are not liable to any grammatical changes, themselves, nor influence the state of other words, they occupy but little room, in either part of grammar. Here, those may be mentioned, which occur most commonly, in the German language. Some indicate joy: as Ah! ha! Mirth and gaiety: as, Sa! hey! heysa! Loud exclamations of the same kind: Juch! juchhey! The following betoken sorrow, and displeasure: Ach! ah! oh! Pain, Ach! weh! au! auweh! Disgust: Fi! Pfui! The next are expressive of admiration: O! ah! ey! Of surprise, in a small degree: Hum; in a greater degree: Ah! ha!—Ha ha! when you have found out, or unravelled a thing: either denoting surprise, or satisfaction.—He! and holla! are used for calling to a person. Other words are em-

ployed, in the capacity of interjections, such as, *Gracious Heaven! Good God!*—but, though they are exclamations proceeding from our feelings, they must not be confounded with those simple sounds, which properly belong to this class. They may be called *compound interjections*, and be said to contain an association of ideas, however rapid, which does not apply to the *simple interjections.**

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* Compare in the Exercises, p. 209, note 3.

GERMAN GRAMMAR.

PART II,

Containing

THE SYNTAX.

HAVING gone through the parts of speech, we arrive at the second division of grammar, which is called *the Syntax.* In this, the subjects that were separately expounded before, are brought into contact with each other. First of all, we shall observe their mutual influence; and the relation they bear to one another, when placed together. It will be seen that in those, which are susceptible of variations, certain modifications take place. Words either agree with, or govern, one another. The agreement consists in this, that they are put in the same gender, number, case, person, tense. And one word is said to govern the other, when, by the power of the former, the latter must necessarily assume a particular shape; for example, a certain case in declension, or such and such a mood, in conjugation. Therefore, the agreement and government of words will constitute the *First Chapter* of the Syntax. The *Second* will contain a collection of peculiarities, which are not embraced by the first chapter. And lastly, in the *Third Chapter*, we shall speak of the order and arrangement of words, in a sentence.

CHAPTER I.

OF THE AGREEMENT, AND GOVERNMENT OF WORDS.

Containing:

1. *The Article, Noun, and Pronoun.*
2. *The Verb, and Participle.*
3. *The Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, Interjection.*

SECTION I.

ARTICLE, NOUN, AND PRONOUN.

The Article.

Rule.—The Article, whether definite or indefinite, must agree with the noun it belongs to, in case, number, and gender.

It can only be joined to a substantive. If it stands before an adjective, it either refers to a substantive preceding, or following; or turns the adjective into a substantive.* Consequently, the agreement of the article is with a noun substantive.

The Definite Article distinguishes, or determines, the word, to which it is prefixed.—It is not every where required, but omitted in the following instances:

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* See p. 197. IX.

1. Before the vocative case, because, when a person, or any other object, is spoken to, it is by this circumstance sufficiently marked.

2. Before the name of the Supreme Being, Gott, God. But when a heathen deity is signified, the article is used; Der Gott, plural, die Götter.

3. Before proper names of persons: as, Cäſar, Alexander. In the oblique cases, however, it is employed for the purpose of declension.* And sometimes it also precedes the nominative, in speaking familiarly of a person: as, Der Kant, Kant; der Jones, Jones; der Käſtner, Kästner.

4. Before names of towns and countries, where it is not even admitted in the oblique cases: as, London; von Londonn, of London. England; von England, of England. There are, however, some names of countries, which are never expressed without the article: as, Die Türkey, Turkey; die Wallachey, Wallachia; die Schweitz, Switzerland; die Lauſitz, Lusatia; and a few more.

5. The definite article does not stand before certain words, denoting the quarters of the globe: Oſten, East; Weſten, West; Süden, South; Norden, North; and the synonymous terms, Morgen, Abend, Mittag, Mitternacht.

6. It is suppressed before titles, when these are placed after the proper names: as, Georg, König von England,

* See p. 170.

und Churfürſt von Hannover, Georgo, King of England, and Prince Elector of Hanover. Johann Ramus, Doctor der Rechte, John Ramus, Doctor of Laws.—Sometimes, likewise, when the title is put before the name: as König Georg, King George; Kaiſer Franz, Emperour Francis: Fürſt Potemkin, Prince Potemkin; Doctor Luther, Profeſſor Sanderſon. And even in the oblique cases: as, König Friedrich's Feldzüge, King Frederick's campaigns; Doctor Luther's Gelehrſamkeit, Doctor Luther's erudition.

7. In the language of the law, a few appellatives occur with the article, which properly ought to have it. Such are, Beklagter, defendant; Kläger, plaintiff; Inhaber, holder, proprietor; Appellant, he that appeals; Supplicant, petitioner.

8. It is left out before some other expressions, which, in English, would require the article. For example: Ueberbringer dieſes, *the* bearer of this; in beſter Ordnung, in *the* best order; vor Endigung des Schauſpieles, before *the* conclusion of the drama. To which may be added the phrases, Ich habe es in Händen, I have it in my hands; ich habe es vor Augen, I have it before my eyes. Before Händen and Augen, some determining word, either the article, or (as in English) a pronoun, ought to be inserted; but custom has justified the omission.

9. When a word is put after the genitive case, which it governs, it cannot have an article. This is the same in English, as in German. For example: Werther's Leiden, Werther's sufferings. The genitive, Werther's, stands before the word, by which it is governed, conse-

quently, the latter can have no article. So, Johnſon's Werke, Johnson's works. Des Vater's Haus, the father's house; Haus without an article.

10. Several substantives of the same gender, number, and case, following, the article is prefixed to the first, and generally understood before the others: as in this example, Die Güte, Liebe und Nachſicht der Mutter, the goodness, affection, and indulgence of the mother. These three substantives are of the same gender, number, and case; therefore, one article is sufficient for all. Thus it is before two adjectives: as, Die reichſte und angenehmſte Belehrung, the most rich and agreeable instruction. But when the gender, number, or case, is different, the article must be adapted to each substantive: as, Der Tod, die Auferſtehung, und das Leben, death, resurrection, and life. Here the genders differ, and the repetition of the article, accordingly, is necessary. Two, or more, substantives being joined by und, and serving as a title, or superscription, the article is commonly put before each, though they should be of the same gender, number, and case: as, Der Rabe und der Fuchs, the raven and the fox. This is done for the purpose of distinctness.

The English and German languages agree, for the most part, in the foregoing observations: but in the following there is a diversity.

1. The English leave out the article before words, that convey a general idea, or have a comprehensive meaning. The Germans, on the other hand, employ the article. For example: Die Natur iſt die beſte Lehrerinn, Nature is the best instructress. Der Menſch iſt ſterblich, man is mortal;

das menſchliche Leben iſt kurz, human life is short. Die Tugend führt zum, or zu dem, Glücke, virtue leads to happiness; das Laſter ſtürzt ſeine Anhänger ins Verderben, vice plunges its followers into perdition. Die Beredſamkeit iſt mächtig, eloquence is powerful; die Dichtkunſt iſt bezaubernd, poetry is enchanting. Here the words, which produce the general sentence, *nature*, *man*, *human life*, *virtue*, *vice*, *eloquence*, *poetry*, are, in German, accompanied with the article. This is also peculiar to other tongues, for instance, the French, and Italian.

2. The English have certain expressions, without the article, where the German language cannot dispense with it. Such are, *Government*, die Regierung; *History*, die Geſchichte; *Holy Writ*, die heilige Schrift. *Saint Paul*, *Saint Peter*, der Heilige Paulus, der Heilige Petrus; unless *Saint* be rendered by the Latin word *Sanct (Sanctus)*, which is sometimes done: as, *Sanct Paulus*, *Sanct Petrus*.—They omit it before *most:* as, *most of his cotemporaries*, where the Germans say, die meiſten.—*In town*, in der Stadt; *in church*, in der Kirche; *to go to church*, in die Kirche gehen.

3. The English put the article before some proper names, where the Germans leave it out: as, *The* East Indies, Oſtindien; *the* West Indies, Weſtindien.—The article is, in German, dispensed with before certain adjectives, and participles, where it would be required, in English. Such are: Erſterer, *the* former; letzterer, *the* latter; beſagter, *the* one aforesaid; erwähnter, gedachter, *the* one mentioned; genannter, *the* one named; folgender, *the* following.

4. They place the definite article always after the word *Half*, when followed by a substantive: as, *Half the number;* whereas, in German, the article stands before it, Die halbe Zahl. The English article frequently stands after *Both:* as, *Both the brothers;* the Germans either put the article before beide: as, Die beiden Brüder, which is the third form of the adjective; or omit it, as, beide Brüder, which is the second form.

5. In English, the preterite participle is, sometimes, put after the substantive; and the article is then omitted, For example, *Paradise Lost, Paradise Regained.* In German, that participle always precedes the substantive, and the article is retained, as in these examples: Das verlorene Paradies, das wieder gewonnene Paradies.

The Indefinite Article is nearly employed in the same manner, as in English. In some phrases it is made use of, where the English assume the definite article. This is done in speaking of collective bodies, attended, with certain epithets, or titles: as, Eine hohe Obrigkeit, the worshipful magistrates; ein hoch weiser Rath, the most learned senate; eine löbliche Universität, the honourable university; ein geehrtes Publicum, the honoured publick.—In the English language, the indefinite article has its place after *half*, and *such:* as, *Half a year, such a man.* In German, it stands before these adjectives: as, Ein halbes Jahr, ein solcher Mann. Instead of ein solcher, you will sometimes find, so ein, (or, solch ein): for instance, So ein Mann, (or, solch ein Mann), the same as, ein solcher Mann, such a man, which may be thought to resemble the English construction.—The English put the indefinite

article before, *few, hundred, thousand*, as, *a few, a hundred, a thousand* (pounds); in German, the corresponding words are used without that article.

Noun Substantive.

Rule I.—Two or more substantives, referring to the same object, or forming an apposition, as it is called, are put in the same case: as, Der König, unſer Freund und Vater, the king, our friend and father. The two last substantives relate to the same object with the first, and therefore stand in the same case, viz. the nominative. Wir lieben den König, unſern Freund und Vater, we love the king, our friend and father. Here they are again in the same case, but in the accusative, governed by the transitive verb lieben.

Rule II.—One substantive governs another in the genitive case, signifying possession, quality, or some other relation: for example, Das Haus meines Freundes, the house of my friend; die Tugend des Vaters, und das Laſter des Sohnes, the virtue of the father, and the vice of the son. The English use the preposition *of*, to express those relations.

An exception is made by the words of measure, and quantity. These do not demand the genitive case, though *of* is put in English: for example, Zehn Ehlen Tuch, ten yards *of* cloth; zwey Fäſſer Wein, two casks *of* wine; ein Regiment Soldaten, a regiment of soldiers.* The genitive,

* Compare what is said p. 168.

however, takes place, when the substantives, that follow those words of measure or quantity, are joined with a pronoun: as, Zehn Ehlen dieſes Tuches, ten yards of *this* cloth; zwey Fäſſer jenes Weines, two casks of *that* wine.* The adjective also renders the genitive sometimes proper: as, ein Regiment guter Soldaten, a regiment of good soldiers.

The genitive case is, frequently, supplied by the preposition von, of, and the dative following. This is done,

1. When the article is excluded: as, Der Schein von Redlichkeit, the appearance of honesty; der nördliche Theil von England, the northern part of England; die Grenzen von Frankreich, the boundaries of France. And, therefore,

2. When quality, condition, proportion, are implied: as, Ein Mann von Verſtande, a man of sense; ein Herr von hohem Adel, a gentleman of high nobility; von alter Herkunft, of ancient origin; eine Reiſe von zehn Meilen, a journey of ten miles; ein Schiff von zwey hundert Tonnen, a ship of two hundred tons; eine Summe von zwanzig Pfunden, a sum of twenty pounds; ein Mann von achtzig Jahren, a man of eighty years.

3. When the material is mentioned, of which any thing is made; as, Eine Uhr von Golde, the same as, eine goldene Uhr, a gold watch: ein Becher von Silber, a silver cup; ein Stuhl von Elfenbein, an ivory chair.

4. Before the indefinite article, to denote character:

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* See p. 168.

as, ein Abſcheu von einem Menſchen, a horrour of a man; ein Ausbund von einem ehrlichen Manne, a pattern of an honest man; ein Muſter von einem guten Sohne, a model of a good son; ein Schurke von einem Bedienten, a knave of a servant; ein Teufel von einem Weibe, a devil of a woman.

5. To prevent a repetition of the same endings: as, Die Urſache von dem ſonderbaren Betragen des Mannes, the reason of the singular conduct of the man—instead of, Die Urſache des ſonderbaren Betragens des Mannes.

Sometimes it is indifferent, whether von be made use of, or the genitive case: for example, Den Schein von Redlichkeit haben, or, den Schein der Redlichkeit haben, to have the appearance of honesty; der nördliche Theil von England, or, der nördliche Theil Englands, the northern part of England; einer von meinen Freunden, or, einer meiner Freunde, one of my friends. But where the genitive is not distinguished by the article, or the termination, von must be employed. Before the article, it is often superfluous: as, Den Schein von der Tugend haben, to have the show of virtue. Der Tugend, as the genitive case, would be sufficient, without that preposition.

Let it be observed, that the words von and *of*, are here mentioned, as being placed between two substantives: nothing is said of their other capacities, as prepositions.

Rule III.—The situation of the genitive is after the word, by which it is governed.

Sometimes it precedes the governing word, in which circumstance the latter loses its article: for example, Des Lebens Freude, life's joy; for, die Freude des Lebens, the joy

of life. It may happen, that the governing word, though put after the genitive, keeps the article; but then the genitive is deprived of it: as, Volks die Menge, a multitude of people; Freude die Fülle, abundance of joy. This, however, is not to be extended beyond the phrases, established by custom.

The position of the genitive, before the governing word, should be easy and unaffected: otherwise it is best, to leave that case in its natural place. Thus two, or more, genitive cases, when transposed, produce a heavy and unharmonious sound, as in this example: Des großen Philosophen Kants Leben, which had better be, das Leben des großen Philosophen Kant, the life of the great philosopher Kant. And it is worse, when of two genitives, before a third word, one governs the other: as, des Ritters, der Sonne Abentheuer, the knight's of the Sun adventures; for, the adventures of the knight of the Sun.

Noun Adjective.

Rule I.—The adjective must agree with its substantive, in gender, number, and case.

This rule applies not only to the adjective in its first, or positive, state, but also to the degrees of comparison. The substantive is sometimes understood, yet the agreement remains: for example, Der gute Mann, und der böse (understand Mann) the good man, and the bad (man); den zwölften dieses Monathes, the twelfth of this month (supply Tag, day).

Rule II.—The place of the adjective is before the substantive.

Except:

1. When it is joined to a proper name, as a title of distinction: as, Friedrich der Kühne, Frederick the Bold; Alexander der Große, Alexander the Great.

2. When it assumes the function of a relative sentence: for example, Der Held, mächtig im Felde und weiſe im Rathe, the hero powerful in the field, and wise in the council. This stands for welcher mächtig im Felde und weiſe im Rathe iſt.

3. Adjectives, derived from names of places, and countries, are, in certain phrases, put after the substantives: as, Zehn Pfund Engliſch. ten pounds English; zwanzig Mark Lübeckiſch, twenty marks of Lubeck; hundert Fuß Rheinländiſch, one hundred feet Rhenish.

Rule III.—Some adjectives govern cases.

1. The following the genitive: Bedürftig, in want of; benöthigt, in need of; bewußt, conscious (with the reciprocal dative, and the genitive of the object: as, Ich bin mir der Sache nicht bewußt); eingedenk, mindful; fähig, capable of, (it is also joined with the preposition zu); froh, glad, satisfied, (also with the prep. über, and the accusative); gewahr, informed of, aware of, (also with the accusative; it generally occurs with the verb werden, to become, as, Er ward der Gefahr, [genitive], or, die Gefahr, [accusative], gewahr, he perceived the danger); gewiß, certain; gewohnt, accustomed to; kundig, skilled in, experienced in; los, free from, rid of; mächtig, in possession of; müde, tired of; quitt, rid of; ſatt, tired of; ſchuldig, guilty; theilhaft, partaking of; überdrüſſig, tired with;

verdächtig, suspicious, suspected; verluſtig, having forfeited, or lost; voll, full of, (also with von);* werth, worth, deserving; würdig worthy.

2. The next are followed by a dative case: Aehnlich, like, resembling; angemeſſen, adapted, suitable; angenehm, agreeable; bekannt, known to; bequem, convenient; bange, anxious, fearful, (as, mir iſt bange, I am fearful); beſchwerlich; troublesome; dienlich, serviceable; furchtbar, formidable; gehorſam, obedient; gemäß, suited to; getreu, faithful; gewogen, inclined to, favourable; gleich, like; nahe, near; verwandt, related to; nöthig, necessary; nützlich, useful; ſchädlich, hurtful; zuträglich, conducive, useful: and others, signifying advantage, or disadvantage.—Prepositions may be employed in many instances, instead of the mere dative case, such as für, for; gegen, towards, against; zu, to, &c.

3. Those which imply measure, weight, age, value, generally with a numeral preceding, require the accusative, and are put after their case. Of this kind are: Lang, long; breit, broad; hoch, high; tief, deep; groß, great; ſchwer, heavy; alt, old; werth, worth; ſchuldig, indebted, owing. For example: Zehn Fuß lang, ten feet long; zwölf Pfund ſchwer, weighing twelve pounds: funfzig Jahr alt, fifty years old; drey Thaler werth, worth three dollars;

* Sometimes it seems, as if the substantive, dependent on voll, remains in the nominative, after it: as, voll Dankbarkeit, full of gratitude. Herder Zerſtr. Bl. 3te Samml. p. 210. Thus voll Muth, instead of (Muthes) full of courage.

er iſt viel Geld ſchuldig, he owes a great deal of money. Lang, joined in this manner, to words, noting time, expresses duration: as, Zehn Jahr lang, for ten years; eine Zeit lang, for a time.

Observations. (1) The cardinal numbers, and the words viel, much, or many, and wenig, little, or few, govern the genitive; and are always put after it. They are frequently combined with the personal pronouns: as, Unſer zwölf, twelve of us; euer zwanzig, twenty of you; ihrer dreiſſig, thirty of them; unſer viele, many of us; ihrer wenig, few of them.*

(2) The word *All* has, in English, commonly, the definite article after it: as, *All* the *world*—All, in German, is without the article: as, Alle Welt, all the world; alles Geld, all the money. There is only one instance, in which the article is required, namely, before possessive pronouns, when used substantively: as, Alle die Meinigen, all my friends; alles das Unſrige, all we possess. And it may stand before adjectives, which are employed as substantives: as, Alle die Guten, all the good people; alles das Böſe, all the evil. Otherwise it is not necessary, except when a relative follows, nor even then always: as, Alle die nachtheiligen Folgen, welche daraus entſtanden, all the disadvantageous consequences, which arose from it. The truth is that in the instances first adduced, the article should not be considered as belonging to all, but to the possessive pronouns.—All sometimes follows the word, to which it belongs: for example, Die Beyſpiele alle, all

* Compare pages 195, and 226.

the examples; die Thränen alle, all the tears; von den übrigen allen, of all the rest; dieſes alles, all this, for alles dieſes; das alles, for alles das, all that. It is always put after the personal, and relative pronouns: as, Wir alle, all of us; ſie alle, all of them; die Leute, welche alle zugegen waren, the people who all were present.

The Pronoun.

Rule I.—Pronouns agree with the substantives, to which they are prefixed, in gender, number and case; and the relative corresponds with the antecedent substantive, to which it belongs, in gender, and number, the case depending upon other circumstances.

Rule II.—The pronouns are put before the substantives, with which they are joined, never after them. This applies particularly to pronouns possessive, and demonstrative. In Vater Unſer, our father, which is the beginning of the Lord's prayer, it might seem, as if the possessive were put after the substantive, Vater; but Unſer, there is the genitive plural of the first personal pronoun, in imitation of the Greek.* The personal pronouns are not combined with substantives, as the others are, but only bear a reference to them, and, in that reference, they answer to them in number, and the third also in gender. This is likewise to be observed of pronouns demonstrative and interrogative, when they stand by themselves. The connexion between the relative, and its antecedent, is of a similar description.

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* See p. 226.

Observations.—1. Speaking of any inanimate object, the English use the neuter of the third personal pronoun, *it*, all such objects being considered as of the neuter gender; the Germans, having three distinct genders, even for lifeless things, apply the pronouns accordingly. Hier iſt ein neuer Hut, here is a new hat—er iſt ſehr fein, (he) it is very fine; wo haben Sie ihn gekauft? where did you buy (him) it? Hut is of the masculine gender; therefore, the masculine pronoun appertains to it. So, Wie gefällt Ihnen dieſe Witterung? how do you like this weather? Sie iſt ſehr unangenehm, (she) it is very unpleasant. The personal pronoun is in the feminine gender, on account of the substantive. Das Pferd geht recht gut, aber es iſt zu hitzig, the horse goes very well, but *it* is too hot. The neuter, es, it, because das Pferd is of that gender.

2. The reciprocal pronoun, in the dative case, frequently supplies the office of a personal pronoun; as, Ich habe mir das Bein verrückt, I have sprained *my* leg; er hat ſich den Hals abgeſchnitten, he has cut *his* throat.

3. A demonstrative pronoun is sometimes preferred to the third personal, especially in the oblique cases, both for the sake of distinction, and of sound. When a nearer object is alluded to, dieſer is put; when a distant one, jener. Derſelbe is frequently substituted for the personal pronoun, without any particular modification. It is chiefly employed in the genitive and dative, in speaking of inanimate objects. When assigned to persons, it occasionally is expressive of respect. Seine Königliche Majeſtät haben einen Befehl ergehen laſſen, worin Dieſelben einen Faſttag verordnen, his Royal Majesty has issued an order, in

which (the same) he commands the keeping of a fast-day. Dieſelben gives to the sentence a more respectful form, than Er, he, or Sie, they, would do. Hence this pronoun constitutes a term of address, for Sie, you; and when relating to individuals of high rank, it is commonly attended with certain epithets, as, Hochdieſelben, Höchſtdieſelben, Allerhöchſtdieſelben; where hoch, high, höchſt, highest, allerhöchſt, highest of all, mark the degree of nobility, belonging to the person addressed.

9. It has been observed, in the first part, that the neuter of the third personal often begins a sentence, in connexion with a noun of a different gender, and number: for example, Es iſt ein Mann, it is a man; es iſt eine Frau, it is a woman. Es, here corresponds with a masculine, and a feminine. However, the English language admits the same mode of expression, in these instances. The peculiarity of the German appears in the following: Es ſind viele Menſchen da, there are many people; es kömmt der König, the king is coming; es ruft der Vater, the father is calling; es kommen Leute, people are coming. This frequently answers to the English *there*: as, *There is a quarrel in the house*, es iſt ein Streit im Hauſe, *there is a doubt among the learned*, es iſt ein Zweifel unter den Gelehrten. Sometimes, that way of opening a sentence is calculated to give it more effect, than if the subject itself were placed at the head. For, the attention of the hearer is raised by the expectation of the word, which is to follow. It is, therefore, very usual with the subjunctive mood, to convey a forcible sentiment: for instance, Es lebe der König, long live the king; es komme mir keiner zu nahe, let no one approach me. The neuters of the demonstra-

tive pronouns are used in a similar manner: as, Dieß iſt mein Freund, this is my friend; Jenes mein Feind, that my enemy; das ſind Soldaten, those are soldiers.

5. The genitive case of the demonstrative pronoun, der, die, das, viz. deſſen, deren, deſſen, in the singular, and derer, or deren, in the plural, is put instead of the third possessive, to avoid confusion: for example, Cicero ließ die Mitverſchworenen des Catilina in deſſen Hauſe ergreifen. Cicero ordered the accomplices of Catiline to be seized in his (Catiline's) house. Here, deſſen, stands for ſeinem, and prevents, at once, all misconception; but ſeinem, his, might be referred to Cicero. Der Conſul wandte ſich an den Senat, weil er auf deſſen Muth traute, the consul applied to the senate, because he trusted to its (the senate's) courage. If it were ſeinen, his, (Senat being of the masculine gender), it would be uncertain, whether the courage of the consul, or that of the senate, was to be understood. Die Einwohner überlieſſen den Engländern die Vertheidigung der Stadt, weil ſie im Falle eines Angriffes auf deren Entſchloſſenheit rechneten, the inhabitants resigned the defence of the city to the English, because, in case of an attack, they reckoned on *their* resolution, namely, the resolution of the English. By means of deren, it is immediately clear, whose resolution is meant; whereas, if ihre, their, had been employed, it might relate to the inhabitants as well as to the English.*—That genitive, moreover, counter-

* This is an advantage, which the German language has over the English, and others. It resembles the distinction, which is made in Latin, between *suus* and

acts the repetition of the same possessive. It is also common to put it, instead of the latter, in reference to inanimate objects; for example, Der Feind hat die Stadt erobert und deren Einwohner gezüchtigt, the enemy has conquered the town, and chastised its inhabitants. Deren, here stands for the possessive ihre Der menſchliche Körper und deſſen Verrichtungen, the human body, and its functions. Deſſen instead of ſeine. As the genitive of the third personal, Es, is not usual, deſſen supplies the vacancy: as, Ich bin deſſen überdrüſſig, I am tired of it.

6. The English make use of the pronoun *that*, not expressing the substantive, to which it refers, but understanding it: as, "Have you seen my house?" "No, but I have seen *that* of your brother." This turn of expression seems not to have belonged to the German idiom, but only to have been introduced into it, from foreign tongues, of late years. The Germans would rather repeat the substantive, and say: Haben Sie mein Haus geſehen? Nein, aber ich habe das Haus Ihres Bruders geſehen. Have you seen my house? No, but I have seen *the house* of your brother. It is, however, become pretty current with recent authors.

7. The manner, in which the two relative pronouns, welcher and der, are used, has been described in the first part; in addition to which, it may here be remarked, that the genitive of der is, in general, preferred to that of

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ejus, though it is not absolutely the same. The Swedes, Danes, and Dutch avail themselves of a similar discrimination.

welcher: as, Der Mann, deſſen ich gedachte, the man I mentioned; die Ehre, deren er ſo würdig iſt, the honour of which he is so deserving; die Männer, derer Verdienſte ſo groß ſind, those men, whose merits are so great.—Der must be made use of, when a vocative case precedes: as, O Gott, der du alles mit Weisheit regiereſt, O God, who governest all things with wisdom. The repetition of the personal pronoun, which, in such instances, is necessary, after the relative der, gives force to the sentence.—The particle als is sometimes found before welcher, as a mere expletive: Die Fremden, als welche hier angekommen ſind, the strangers, which have arrived here. Now and then it may have an explanatory capacity, similar to the Latin *quippe qui*, but generally speaking, it is superfluous, and improper.—The relative cannot be conveniently joined with the imperative mood; it sounds uncouth: for example, welches ſiehe, which see; better, ſiehe dieß, see this.

SECTION II.

VERB AND PARTICIPLE.

Persons and Numbers.

Rule I.—The verb must agree with the subject nominative, in number and person.

Observations.—1. When the verb belongs to two, or more substantives, of the singular number, it should itself be in the plural; as, Haß, Liebe und Eiferſucht ſind heftige Leidenſchaften der menſchlichen Seele, hatred, love, and jealousy, are violent passions of the human soul. Some-

times, the verb stands in the singular, after two or more substantives: for example, Mord und Verwüſtung herrſchet im Lande, murder and destruction reign in the land. Though it would, in such instances, perhaps be better always to employ the plural, yet not only the custom of the language, but grammatical reason also justifies the singular. It is a sort of elliptical form; the verb should have been repeated at every substantive: but it is only expressed with one, and to be understood with the other. It should be thus supplied, Mord herrſchet im Lande, und Verwüſtung herrſchet im Lande.

2. When the subjects are of different persons, the first person is preferred to the second; and the second to the third: consequently, the verb will be in the first person plural, when one of the subject nominatives is of the first person, and in the second, if there is a second, and no first personal: for example, Ich, du und dein Bruder, or, Du, dein Bruder und ich wollen ſpatzieren gehen, you, your brother, and I will take a walk. Wollen is in the first person plural, because one of the subjects (du, dein Bruder und ich) happens to be in the first person, namely, ich. Du, dein Bruder, und deine Schweſter, ſeyd heute eingeladen worden, you, your brother, and your sister, have been invited to-day. Seyd, is the second person of the verb, on account of du, the second personal pronoun, which takes the lead, in absence of the first.

3. The verb is put in the plural number, with a subject nominative of the singular, in titles of address: as, Euere Excellenz haben befohlen, your Excellency has ordered; Euere Majeſtät geruhen, your Majesty is graciously pleased;

Ihre Gnaden bemerken, your Lordship observes. In the above, haben, geruhen, bemerken, are in the plural number. Persons of title, or rank, are sometimes spoken of, in this form, even when absent: as, Der Herr Baron ſind hier geweſen, my Lord Baron has been here; der Herr Graf haben es mir geſagt, my Lord Count has told me. This is, indeed, carrying the point of respect and politeness very far, but it is by no means uncommon.

Rule II.—The personal pronouns are always to be expressed, unless some other word is substituted for them.

Observations 1.—It is of course understood, that when a subject nominative accompanies the verb, no additional pronoun is wanted. Therefore, in the third person, the pronoun is not required, when a substantive, in the nominative case, is already with the verb: for example, Der Mann ſchreibt, the man writes, where it would be wrong to say, Der Mann er ſchreibt, the man *he* writes; one nominative being sufficient. In the same manner, when you address a person with a title, the second pronoun personal would be superfluous: as, Ihre Gnaden beweiſen mir ſehr viele Güte, your Lordship shows me great kindness; where the insertion of a pronoun, after *your Lordship*, would be improper.

2. The imperative mood takes no pronoun in the second person, except for the sake of emphasis, and distinction. But the third person cannot be used without the pronoun, not even when it stands for the second, in speaking to any one. See the Conjugation of Verbs.

3. When two or more verbs, of the same person, meet together, one pronoun, or substantive, may serve for them all: for example, Ich leſe und ſchreibe, I read and write; er kam zu mir, ging aber bald wieder weg, he came to me, but soon went away again; wir haben Ihre Einladung erhalten, danken für Ihre Güte und werden uns das Vergnügen machen, Sie zu beſuchen, we have received your invitation, thank you for your kindness, and will do ourselves the pleasure of calling upon you. In these instances, the pronoun is only employed once, before the first verb. It is the same, when a substantive, or proper name, is joined to the verb: as, Der Feind kam und verheerte das Land, the enemy came, and desolated the country.

4. The first personal pronoun is sometimes omitted in old, and formal language, particularly in addressing persons of superior rank: as, Euere Gnaden kann hiermit verſichern, I can herewith assure your Lordship; Dero Schreiben habe erhalten, I have received your letter. This notion seems to have sprung from an imaginary kind of reverence, by which he that spoke, or wrote, was too modest to mention his own person, at the same time with the one spoken to. But, thanks to common sense, those Gothick ideas are now abandoned.

Tenses.

Here, a few things only are to be remarked.

1. The preterimperfect tense is, in German, not commonly employed to express an action quite passed, and unconnected with any other. For this purpose the preterperfect is, in general, appropriated, though the Eng-

lish prefer the preterimperfect; for example, Ich habe das nie gesehen, I never saw it; ich bin nie da gewesen, I never was there; sind Sie nie in Berlin gewesen, were you never at Berlin? When the action is connected with another, that happened at the same time, or in consequence of the former, the preterimperfect is proper. Da wir hier ankamen, so schickten wir unsern Bedienten zurück, when we arrived here, we sent back our servant. *We arrived and sent back*, are two actions connected with and following out of, one another. Such a connexion of actions is the subject of historical narration. The preterimperfect is, therefore, peculiarly adapted to that sort of composition. Still the Germans, even in such a connexion, sometimes put the preterperfect tense, though the preterimperfect would be preferable.

2. In historical style, the present tense is, frequently, substituted for the past imperfect, to enliven the representation. This is sometimes done in English, but more seldom, than in German.

3. The present tense is occasionally applied to a future action. Ich reise morgen ab, I (shall) set off to-morrow; in drey Wochen sehen Sie mich wieder hier, in three weeks time you (will) see me here again; ich komme gleich wieder, I (will) come back immediately.

4. It is proper, that an inaccuracy should be noticed, in this place which very often is to be met with, even in respectable writers. The tenses that bear a reference to one another, should correspond, as they do in Latin: but this is not always attended to. In this instance, Man

glaubte, daß es wahr ſey, they *thought* that it *was* true, they do *not* correspond, in the German, which is a fault; for, glaubte, is the preterimpérfect, and ſey, the present. They should both be imperfects, as they are, in English, *thought—was*; thus, Man glaubte, daß es wahr wäre. Another example: Er behauptet ich wäre da geweſen, he *maintains*, that *I have* been there. This is again wrong, behauptet being the present tense, and wäre the preterimperfect, which should be changed into ſey, in order to make it correspond with the foregoing present, behauptet: for I here consider wäre by itself, not as it forms, the compound tense, wäre geweſen, er behauptet, ich ſey da geweſen. Farther, Er ſagt, dadurch habe er die Gelegenheit verloren, es wäre aber nachher einem andern gelungen, he *says* that he *has*, by that means, lost the opportunity, but that another *has* afterwards succeeded: habe and wäre er, are at variance; the latter should be ſey.

The Moods.

The *Indicative*, and *Imperative* require no elucidation.

Rule I.—The *Subjunctive*, or as the Germans call it, the *Conjunctive*, is, or ought to be used:

1. When a state of uncertainty is implied. It is, therefore, to be found after some conjunctions, which convey that idea. Such are, wenn, if; als wenn, as if; ob, whether; damit, in order that; daß, that. But the subjunctive mood must not be supposed to be governed by those conjunctions. It solely depends upon the uncertainty, or doubtfulness, with which the action of the verb is

conceived. It appears, for instance, that the subjunctive follows after daß, when any one of these verbs precedes: Bitten, to beg; rathen, to advise; ermahnen, to exhort; beſorgen, to apprehend; fürchten, to fear; ſcheinen, to appear, to seem; bedingen, to make conditions; wünſchen, to wish; wollen, to desire; zweifeln, to doubt, &c. For, when we *beg*, *advise*, *exhort*, *apprehend*, *fear*, *wish*, *desire*, that a thing be done, a degree of uncertainty exists, as to the event. On this ground, the subjunctive mood is employed, in German. This is farther manifest from the verb ſagen, to say, and similar ones, as, antworten, to answer; behaupten, to maintain, &c. When that, which is said, or maintained, remains, in our idea, liable to doubt, the subjunctive should follow after daß: for example, Man ſagt mir, daß es gedonnert habe, they tell me that there has been thunder; unſer Freund behauptet, daß dieß ein fruchtbares Jahr ſeyn werde, our friend maintains, that this will be a fruitful year. Here, I am told something, and a person has maintained, that such and such an event will take place. But in as far as I do not regard these things as perfectly certain, and as there may be a doubt about them, it is proper that the notion should be expressed in the subjunctive mood. When, on the other hand, the idea is considered as positive, and unquestionable, the indicative must be made use of: for instance, when a person speaks of himself, as, Ich behaupte, daß es wahr iſt, I maintain that it is true. Here, the subjunctive would be wrong, because the notion is strongly affirmative. If what a person maintains were not certain, in his own conception, he should look for another expression, such as, *I believe*, *I think*. Ich weiß, daß er das

Geld bekommen hat, I know that he has received the money; the indicative, for the same reason.—The conjunction, Wenn, if, does not require the subjunctive mood after it, except when the sentence to which it belongs is connected with one that contains a conditional future; as, Ich würde es thun, wenn es möglich wäre, I should do it, if it were possible. Here wäre, the verb belonging to wenn, is in the subjunctive mood, because the preceding sentence contains a conditional future, *I should do it.**—It is evident, that the subjunctive rests upon the opinion, that it is formed of the certainty or uncertainty, in the action of the verb. It is a natural consequence of this, that, in some circumstances, it may be questioned, whether the indicative or the subjunctive be more proper; the decision will proceed from the point of view, in which the sentence is contemplated.—The subjunctive is, sometimes, unnecessarily recurred to, because the condition, on which it depends, is not always sufficiently understood.

2. The subjunctive mood takes place, when daß, and wenn, are to be supplied: as, Er glaubt, es sey nicht möglich, he thinks *(that)* it is not possible; man sagt, der Kaiser habe Frieden gemacht, they say (that) the Emperour has made peace. In those examples, the indicative might also pass, without censure. But not so, when the verb, to which wenn, *if*, is to be supplied, stands at the very head of the sentence; as in the following: Wäre ich an Ihrer Stelle, were I in your place, instead of, wenn ich an Ihrer

* See Exercises, p. 122. note 1.

Stelle wäre, if I were in your place; hätte er die Schätze des Crösus, had he the treasures of Crœsus, for, wenn er die Schätze des Crösus hätte, if he had the treasures of Crœsus. Thus, Sollte sich das ereignen, should that happen; sollte er nicht kommen, should he not come: for, *if*, that should happen, if he should not come.—Sometimes the conjunction wenn, *if*, is to be understood before the present tense, though this tense can, under those circumstances, not be put in the subjunctive, but must be in the indicative mood. Examples: Bist du reich, so gib viel; bist du arm, so gib dein Weniges gerne, *if* thou *art* rich, give much; *if* thou *art* poor, give thy little cheerfully. Höreſt du was böſes, das ſage nicht nach, *if* thou *hearest* any bad, do not repeat it. *Ecclesiasticus.*

3. It frequently stands in a potential signification, expressing a wish: as, Der Himmel gebe es, may heaven grant it; Gott behüte, God forbid;—or a permission, and concession: as, Er gehe wohin er wolle, let him go where he pleases;—or a supposition: as, Es wäre beſſer, wenn wir Ihren Rath befolgt hätten, it would be better, if we had followed your advice: die Franzoſen hätten die Schlacht nicht gewonnen, wenn ſie nicht eine ſo große Uebermacht an Leuten gehabt hätten, the French would not have gained the battle, if they had not had such superior numbers;—surprise, or wonder, Hätte ichs doch nicht geglaubt! I should not have thought it!*

Rule II.—The Infinitive Mood occurs either *without* the preposition zu, or *with* it.

* Leſſing, die Juden.

A. Without, zu.

1. When it stands by itself, and unconnected, for example, in a vocabulary: as, lieben, to love; ſehen, to see.

2. When it is in the room of a substantive, either as the subject, or as the object: as, verſprechen und erfüllen ſind zwey verſchiedene Sachen, to promise and to fulfil are two different things; das nenne ich fechten, that I call to fight, or fighting; das heiſſe ich grauſam verfahren, that I call to act cruelly, or acting cruelly.

3. After the verbs: Können, mögen, laſſen, dürfen, ſollen, wollen, müſſen; and werden, when it is the auxiliary to the future tense.

4. After the verbs: Heiſſen, to bid; helfen, to help; lehren, to teach: lernen, to learn; hören, to hear: ſehen, to see; fühlen, to feel. For example: Ich hieß ihn gehen, I bid him go, er hilft mir ſchreiben, he helps me to write, that is, he assists me in writing; der Vater lehrt das Kind leſen, the father teaches the child to read; wir lernen tanzen, we learn to dance; ich höre ſie ſingen, I hear them sing; ich ſehe ihn kommen. I see him come, or coming; er fühlte ſein Blut gähren, he felt his blood boil, or boiling. —After some of those verbs, the English more commonly use the participle; the Germans constantly employ the infinitive. Lehren, and lernen sometimes admit zu, before the infinitive that follows them.

5. Some verbs are joined to an infinitive, without zu, in particular phrases. They are:

Bleiben, to remain—with the infinitive, it signifies con-

tinuance of locality: as, Er bleibt liegen, he continues lying; er bleibt ſitzen, he continues sitting, he keeps his seat, he does not move from his seat; er bleibt ſtehen, he continues standing. Thus with ſtecken, to stick fast; hangen, to hang; knien, to kneel; kleben, to adhere, to stick.

Fahren, to go in a carriage, with ſpatzieren: as, Ich fahre ſpatzieren, I drive out for exercise, for an airing.

Finden, to find, is occasionally followed by the infinitive, where the English put the participle. Er fand ſie ſchlafen, he found them sleeping, or asleep; ich fand das Buch auf dem Tiſche liegen, I found the book lying upon the table. The participle might here be used, even in German.

Gehen, to go: as, Ich gehe ſpatzieren, I take a walk; er geht ſchlafen, he goes to sleep, that is, he goes to bed; and with some other verbs.

Haben, to have, in these and similar phrases: Er hat gut reiſen, he has good travelling; ſie haben gut ſprechen, you have fine talking; wir haben Geld auf Zinſen ſtehen, we have money standing out on interest.

Sich legen, to lay one's self down, with ſchlafen, to sleep: as, Ich lege mich ſchlafen, I lay myself down to sleep.

Machen, when it signifies to cause, to occasion: as, Er macht mich lachen, he makes me laugh; er macht mich weinen, he makes me cry.

Reiten, to ride on horseback, with ſpatzieren; as, Ich reite ſpatzieren, I take a ride.

Thun, to do, with nichts, and als, after it: as, Die Frau, thut nichts als zanken, the woman does nothing but

quarrel; der Mann thut nichts als ſchelten, the man does nothing but scold.

B. The Infinitive with the preposition zu, to, before it:

1. After nouns, when, in English, either *to*, with the infinitive, or *of*, with the participle, is used: for example, after a substantive, Luſt zu ſpielen, an inclination to play; das Vergnügen ſie zu ſehen, the pleasure of seeing you; der Wunſch gelobt zu werden, the wish of being praised:—after an adjective, ich war froh meinen Freund wieder zu ſehen, I was happy to see my friend again; müde zu ſtehen, tired of standing; neugierig zu wiſſen, curious to know; begierig zu erfahren, anxious to be informed.

2. After verbs, when purpose and design are intimated. Ich ging zu dem Manne, ihm die Sache vorzuſtellen und mit ihm darüber zu ſprechen, I went to the man, *to* represent the thing to him, and *to* converse with him about it. And here the participle um, is frequently joined with zu, which expresses the design still more distinctly. Liebet die Jugend, um glücklig zu ſeyn, love virtue (for) to be happy.

3. After the following, and verbs of a similar signification: Anfangen, to begin; aufhören, to cease; befehlen, to command; bitten, to beg; erwarten, to expect; hoffen, to hope; fürchten, to fear: drohen, to threaten; pflegen, to be wont; behaupten, to maintain; erkennen, to acknowledge, with the infinitive in the preterite tense, as, Er erkennt, ſich geirrt zu haben, he acknowledges to

have been mistaken; bekennen, to confess, with the infinitive preterite, as, Er bekennt das Geld erhalten zu haben, he confesses to have received the money; ſcheinen, to appear, to seem; wünſchen, to wish; verlangen, to desire; ermangeln, to fail; erlauben, to permit; geſtatten, to allow; verdienen, to deserve; wagen, to venture; haben, to have, as, Ich habe Ihnen etwas zu ſagen, I have something to tell you; ſeyn, to be, as, Es iſt zu fürchten, it is to be feared; wiſſen, to know how, as, Er weiß es zu machen, he knows how to do it; and these verbs, helfen, nutzen, frommen, when they signify to be of use, to answer a purpose.

4. The preposition ohne, without, and ſtatt or anſtatt, instead of, require zu before the infinitive. The English construe them with the participle: as, Ohne zu wiſſen, without knowing, Fr. *sans savoir;* ſtatt zu ſchlafen, instead of sleeping; anſtatt zu ſchreiben, instead of writing.*

In English, the infinitive, with *to*, is put after some verbs, where the Germans, prefer the conjunction daß, with the indicative, or subjunctive, for example: *I knew him to be the man*, Ich wußte, daß er der Mann war; *they thought me to be mistaken*, ſie dachten, daß ich mich irrte; *he believed it to be true*, er glaubte, daß es wahr wäre.—The infinitive with *to*, is also employed, by the English, after words, which form indirect questions, such as, *when*, *where*, *how*, *which*, *what*, *whose*, *whom*, when certain verbs, such as, *to know*, *to tell*, *to be told*, and the like, precede. For example, *you know how to write it; I will tell you what to do; teach*

* See Exercises, p. 249, note 2.

me what to say. In German, the indicative, or subjunctive of some assisting verb, such as, muß, ſoll, must ought, shall, is to be made use of: as, Sie wiſſen, wie Sie es ſchreiben müſſen, you know how you must write it; ich will Ihnen ſagen, was Sie thun müſſen, I will tell you what you must do; lehren Sie mich, was ich ſagen ſoll, teach me what I shall say.

The Auxiliaries.

When the same auxiliary belongs to more than one verb, it need only be once employed: as, Ich habe es gehört und geſehen, I have heard, and seen it: wir haben geſchrieben, geleſen und geſprochen, we have written, read, and talked; der König wird von ſeinen Unterthanen geliebt und geehrt, the king is beloved, and honoured by his subjects. It would encumber the sentences, to have the auxiliary, more than once, in those several examples. The English coincides in this with the German language. But the latter owns a peculiarity, with which many other tongues are not acquainted; namely, that the first and second auxiliary, when placed at the end of a sentence, may be omitted. For instance: Mein Freund hat mir geſagt, daß er Ihren Brief geleſen, my friend has told me, that he has read your letter. After geleſen, the auxiliary, habe, or hat, is to be understood. It would have been fully as well, if it had been expressed, though sometimes the omission has a good effect, by preventing the monotonous repetition of the same auxiliary word.* The

* The Swedes use a similar freedom.

third auxiliary, though placed at the end, can never be left out.

The Verb governing Cases of Declension.

Rule I.—The Nominative case, as the object, is required,

1. By the following verbs: Seyn, to be; werden, to become; bleiben, to remain; heiſſen, to be called, to bear a name; ſcheinen, to seem. Examples: Friedrich war ein großer König, Frederick was a great king; mein Bruder iſt Soldat geworden, my brother is become a soldier; er bleibt ein Thor, wie er immer war, he remains a silly man, as he always was; dieſer Menſch heißt der Oberſte, this man is called the colonel; es ſcheint ein guter Plan, it seems a good plan. The nouns, after the verbs, are here all in the nominative case.

2. By the passive voice of such verbs, as, in the active, govern a double accusative: for instance, Nennen, to call, to name—Er wird ein ehrlicher Mann genannt, he is called an honest man; heiſſen, to call, to name; taufen, to christen—das Kind iſt Heinrich getauft worden, the child has been christened Henry. Heinrich, is here the nominative case. Schelten, to abuse—er wird ein Betrüger geſcholten, he is abused as a cheat; ſchimpfen, to insult by opprobrious appellations—er ward eine Memme geſchimpft, he was insulted as a coward. Some verbs occur, in English, with two accusatives, in the active and two nominatives (namely one as the subject before, and the other as the object after the verb) in the passive voice: where, in German, the second case is construed with a preposition.

Such are the verbs, to appoint, to choose, to declare, and the like: for example, Er iſt zum Doctor gemacht worden, he is made a doctor; er iſt zum Richter ernannt worden, he has been appointed judge; er wurde für einen Spitzbuben erklärt, he was declared a thief. Here the prepositions zu and für, are required, while in English, the nominative case is sufficient. Some grammarians join the verb lehren, to teach, with a double accusative, in the active voice: as, Jemanden Muſik lehren, to teach a person musick. Therefore, it would be right to say, in the passive, Er iſt Muſik gelehrt worden, he has been taught musick. But this mode of expression would be considered as rather unusual. It would be less so, to say, Ihm iſt Muſik gelehrt worden, musick has been taught to him. If the dative (ihm) be, in this instance, adopted, the double accusative must be considered as excluded from the active voice. Accordingly, a dative is to be used with the verb Lehren—Einem etwas lehren, to teach something to a person.

3. The reflective verbs are followed by a nominative, after als, or wie, *as*: for instance, Er beträgt ſich als ein rechtſchaffener Mann, he conducts himself *as* an honest man; er zeichnet ſich als ein guter Soldat aus, he distinguishes himself *as* a good soldier. But it must be observed, that this nominative case is not governed by the reflective verb. That phrase is elliptical, and, at full length, would be, Er beträgt ſich, als ein rechtſchaffener Mann ſich beträgt, he conducts himself, as an honest man conducts himself; er zeichnet ſich aus, als ein guter Soldat ſich auszeichnet, he distinguishes himself, as a good soldier distinguishes himself. The circumstances are the same after

verbs, which are not reflective: as, Der Knabe ſchreibt als ein Mann, the boy writes as a man; for der Knabe ſchreibt, als ein Mann ſchreibt, the boy writes, as a man writes. If the case be referred to the reflective verb, it must be the accusative: for example, Er zeigt ſich als einen tüchtigen Feldherrn, he shows himself an able general.

Rule II.—The Genitive case, governed:

1. By the verbs: Anklagen, to accuse of; bedürfen, to be in need of, (sometimes, it is construed with the accusative case); beſchuldigen, to accuse of, to charge with; berauben, to rob; überheben, to disburden, to free from; würdigen, to deign, to think worthy of. The thing that we are accused of, in need of, charged with, robbed of, freed from, thought worthy of, is put in the genitive case: for example, Jemanden des Mordes anklagen, to accuse a person of murder; jemanden der Verrätherey beſchuldigen, to charge a person with treachery; jemanden ſeines Vermögens berauben, to rob a person of his fortune; jemanden der Mühe überheben, to free a person from the trouble; jemanden großer Ehre würdigen, to think a person worthy of great honour.

2. The following take the genitive case of the thing, and the accusative of the person; but they may also be placed in some other construction: Gewähren, to grant; entblößen, to strip; entlaſſen, to dismiss; entladen, to disburden; entledigen, to free from; to acquit, to disincumber; entſetzen, to displace; überführen, to convict; überzeugen, to convince: verſichern, to assure; verweiſen, to banish. For example: Jemanden ſeines Wunſches gewäh-

ren, to grant to a person his wish, that which he wishes: einen Mann ſeines Amtes entſetzen, to discharge a man from his office; ſich einer Laſt entledigen, to disencumber one's self of a burden; den Schuldigen ſeines Verbrechens überführen, to convict the guilty person of his crime; ich verſichere dich meiner Freundſchaft, I assure thee of my friendship. Those beginning with ent and über, may be construed with the preposition von, and the dative following: as, Jemanden von ſeiner Laſt entladen, to free a person from his burden; jemanden von ſeinem Dienſte entlaſſen, to dismiss a person from his office; jemandem von ſeinem Irrthume überzeugen, to convince a person of his error. Gewähren, and verſichern, may be joined with the dative of the person, and the accusative of the thing: as, Ich gewähre dir deine Bitte, I grant (to) you your request; ich verſichere es dir, I assure (it to) you. Verſichern is likewise combined with the preposition von: as, Ich bin von der Sache verſichert, I am assured of the thing.—Belehren, has the genitive of the thing, in the expression, jemanden eines beſſern belehren, to inform a person of what is better, to set him right. But commonly von is made use of—Er hat mich von der Sache belehrt.

3. These govern either the genitive, or the accusative, the former being more usual in some of them, and the latter in others: Achten, to mind, to care about; bedürfen, to want: begehren, to desire; entbehren, to want, to do without; erwähnen, to mention; genieſſen, to enjoy; pflegen, to foster, to take care of; ſchonen, to spare; ſpotten, to mock; vergeſſen, to forget; warten, to attend to, to take care of, as, ſeines Amtes warten, to attend to one's

office.—Gedenken, to remember, to think of, may have the genitive after it, or the preposition an, with the accusative.

4. Several reflective verbs are construed with the genitive case of the thing. Such are: Sich anmaßen, to claim, as, ſich eines Titels anmaßen, to claim a title, (also with the accusative, ſich einen Titel anmaßen); ſich (einer Sache) annehmen, to interest one's self in a thing; ſich bedanken, to thank for, as, ich bedanke mich deſſen, I thank you for that; ſich bedenken, to consider; ſich beſinnen, to think upon; ſich bedienen, to make use of; ſich begeben, to resign, to give up; ſich bemächtigen, ſich bemeiſtern, to make one's self master of a thing, to gain possession of it; ſich enthalten, to abstain; ſich entſchlagen, to get rid of a thing; ſich entſinnen, to recollect; ſich erbarmen, to have mercy, to have compassion; ſich erinnern, to remember; ſich erwehren, to resist; ſich freuen, to rejoice in, to enjoy; ſich getröſten, to hope for with confidence; ſich rühmen, to boast of; ſich ſchämen, to be ashamed: ſich unterfangen, unterwinden, to venture on, to undertake; ſich verſehen, to be aware of; ſich weigern, to refuse.* Add some impersonals: Es gereut mich, I repent; mich jammert, I pity, am sorry for; es verlangt mich, I desire; es verlohnt ſich (der Mühe), it is worth (while). Many of these verbs also admit other cases, and prepositions.

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* The reflective, or reciprocal pronoun, in most of these verbs, is in the accusative case: anmaßen has it in the dative; which appears, when it is put in the first person: as, Ich maße mir dieß an, this I pretend to.

5. The verbs ſeyn, to be, and werden, to become, have the genitive case after them, in some phrases: as, Der Meinung ſeyn to be of opinion; Vorhabens ſeyn, to be in the intention, to intend; Willens ſeyn, to purpose; Unmuths ſeyn, to be in a state of displeasure, dissatisfaction, dejection, to be displeased, to be dissatisfied, to be dejected; —Vorhabens werden, to resolve, to determine.

The combination of the genitive case with verbs, was formerly more frequent, than it is at the present day. It is found in old writings, after many verbs, which are now joined to other cases, or followed by prepositions. For instance, to express a part of a thing, the mere genitive was put, where a preposition is now employed: as, Iß des Brotes, eat of the bread; trinke des Weines, drink of the wine; nimm des Getreides, take of the corn. In modern language it would be, iß von dem Brote, trinke von dem Weine.*

Rule III.—The Dative case after the verb.

1. After transitive verbs, which, at the same time, govern the accusative. The accusative is then called the case of the thing, and the dative the case of the person: for example, Geben ſie dem Manne das Buch, give the book to the man. Dem Manne is the dative case of the person, and das Buch, the accusative of the thing.—The following transitives take the dative of the person; Geben, to give:

* Voss. Odyssee, 1. 113. Einige miſchten des Weines some mixed of the wine. This is an imitation of the ancient construction.

nehmen, to take from a person; ſagen, to say, to tell; erzählen, to tell, to relate; antworten, to answer; bringen, to bring; befehlen, to command; bezahlen, to pay; koſten, to cost; bieten, to offer; borgen, to sell upon credit; leihen, to lend; glauben, to believe; gönnen, not to envy, not to grudge: klagen, to complain of, to state in the form of complaint; liefern, to furnish; leiſten, to show, to render, as, Dienſte leiſten, to render services; erlaſſen, to remit; erwiedern, to return, to give in turn, to reply; gebieten, to command; geloben, to vow; erlauben, to permit; geſtatten, to allow; widerrathen, to dissuade from. Add verbs compounded with ab: Abbitten, to beg pardon, einem einen Fehler abbitten, to beg pardon of a person for a fault; abfordern, to demand from; abzwingen, to force from; abrathen, to dissuade; abſchlagen, to refuse; abſprechen, to give sentence against a person, to deny, einem etwas abſprechen; abkaufen, to buy of. Some with an: Anbieten, to offer; anrathen, to advise; andeuten, to signify; andichten, to attribute falsely; anzeigen, to announce; and others. Some with bey: Beybringen, to impart; beylegen, to attribute; beymeſſen, to impute. Some with ent: Entreiſſen, to snatch away; entziehen, to take away, &c.* With wider: Widerrathen, to dissuade. Subjoin lastly the reflective verbs, Sich anmaßen, to claim, to pretend to; ſich einbilden, to fancy, to imagine. Examples: Ich maße mir den Titel an, I pretend to the title; ich bilde mir den Umſtand ein, I imagine the circumstance. After ſich anmaßen, the genitive may be put, in the room of the accusative.†

* See p. 341. † See p. 435, 4.

2. After verbs intransitive: as, Anhangen, to adhere to; anliegen, to apply to, to solicit; gehören and angehören, to belong to; begegnen, to meet, to happen to; bekommen, to agree with, said of things, that refer to health and constitution, for instance, of eating and drinking; bevorſtehen, to impend; beyfallen, to agree with a person in opinion; beykommen, to come near, to get at; beypflichten, to coincide with in opinion; beyſtehen, to assist; danken, to thank; dienen, to serve; drohen, to threaten; entfliehen, entgehen, to escape; entſprechen, to answer to, to correspond to; and other compounds with ent;* einfallen, to occur to the thoughts, or the memory; eingehen, to enter the mind, to be understood; einkommen, to enter the thoughts, to enter the mind; einleuchten, to be clear, to be evident, to appear; folgen, to follow; fröhnen, to do service without pay; gebühren, to be due; gedeihen, to succeed, to prosper; gehorchen, to obey; gefallen, to please; gerathen, gelingen, to succeed; gleichen, to be like; geziemen, to become, to befit; helfen, to help; nützen, to be useful, to be of use; obliegen, (einer Sache) to apply one's self to a thing—also (as an impersonal) to be incumbent upon; unterliegen, to be overcome, to yield; ſchaden, to hurt; ſcheinen, to seem; ſchmeicheln, to flatter; ſteuern, to check, to restrain; trotzen, to bid defiance; wehren, to check; weichen, ausweichen, to give way, to yield; ſich widerſetzen, to oppose, to resist; widerſtehen, to resist; wohlwollen, to wish well; zufallen, to fall to; zuhören, to listen to, to hear: zugehören, to belong to: zukommen, to become,

* See page 541.

to be suitable, to belong to, to be due; zureden, to speak to, to exhort; and other compounds with zu. And these impersonals: Es ahnet, or ahndet, mir, it misgives me, I foresee; es beliebt, it pleases; es gebricht, it is wanting; es graut mir, I am fearful; es träumt mir, I dream; es schwindelt mir, I am giddy; es schaudert mir, I shudder; es vorschlägt mir nichts, it makes no difference to me.

3. Some verbs admit both the dative, and the accusative: Ankommen, to come upon—mir, or mich, kommt Furcht an, fear comes upon me; mir, or mich, däucht, it seems to me; mir, or mich, dünckt, it seems to me (the accusative is more usual); es schmerzt mir, or mich, it pains me; mir, or mich ekelt, I loathe. Heissen, to bid, to desire, occurs with the dative of the person, and the accusative of the thing—Wer hat dir das geheissen, who desired you to do that? but the person may also be put in the accusative, wer hat dich das geheissen? The same is to be said of lehren, to teach, which either is followed by two accusatives, one of the thing, and the other of the person; or by the dative of the person, and the accusative of the thing. I think the latter more proper.

4. The dative expresses advantage, or disadvantage, and answers to the English prepositions, *to* and *for*: as, Dir scheinet die Sonne, for thee the sun shines; dir lachen die Felder, to thee the fields smile: dir heulen die Winde, to thee (against thee) the winds howl.

Rule IV.—The Accusative is governed by verbs transitive.

These verbs, which imply an action, passing over to an object: as, I love my country. *I love* is the verb transitive, the action of which passes over to an object, *my country.*

That verbs neuter may be transformed into transitives, and govern an accusative, has been noticed upon a former occasion:* as, Einen guten Kampf kämpfen, to fight a good fight; where kämpfen, is joined with the accusative, though it is generally used without any case.

There are verbs that take a double accusative: as, heiſſen, to call; nennen, to name; ſchelten, to abuse; ſchimpfen, to call by an opprobrious name. For example: Ich heiſſe, nenne, ihn einen Helden, I call him a hero; er ſchalt, ſchimpfte, ihn einen Betrüger, he called him a cheat. To which may be added fragen, to ask, as, einen etwas fragen, to ask a person something; but here it is better to make use of a preposition, as, einen um etwas fragen, to ask a person about something. Of lehren, to teach, and heiſſen, to command, which sometimes have a double accusative, mention has been made, in the foregoing page.

The Participle.

The most essential points, concerning the participle, have been anticipated in the First Part.—Besides its connexion with the verb, the participle is, in the syntax, liable to the rules of the adjective.—The preterite is combined in a particular way, with the verbs wollen, haben, and wiſſen: as, Ich wollte Sie gefragt haben, I would

* Page 319.

have you asked, that is to say, I should wish to ask you; ich wollte Sie gebeten haben, I would have you requested, that is, I would request you. Dieſes Verbrechen wollen wir geahndet wiſſen. we would know this crime punished, that is, we wish to have it punished; er will nichts von der Sache geſagt wiſſen, he wishes not to know any thing said of the matter, that is, he does not wish to have any thing said about it.—With the preterite participle an absolute accusative case may be combined: as, Keinen ausgenommen, no one excepted.

There are some participles, which may be said to represent pronouns, having a demonstrative signification. Of this description are: beſagt, aforesaid; gedacht, erwähnt, aforementioned; genannt, aforenamed; folgend, the following.*

SECTION III.

OF THE PREPOSITION, CONJUNCTION, AND INTERJECTION.

THIS section only furnishes a few short observations.

Of the Preposition.

When the same preposition belongs to more than one noun, it need only be once expressed: as, Von meinem

* Compare p. 188, 2. 368.

Vater, meinem Bruder und meiner Schweſter, from my father, my brother and my sister.

Of the Conjunction.

The subjunctive mood follows after some conjunctions: yet it is not governed by them, as sometimes is erroneously conceived, but depends upon other grounds, which have been fully explained above.*

Of the Interjection.

The interjection stands quite by itself: it neither is governed by, nor governs, any other part of speech. Therefore, the nominative and vocative, being independent cases, that is, such as are not governed by a preceding word, are most proper after interjections. Ach! ich unglücklicher Menſch, ah! I unhappy mortal! Ey! der Schalk, ah! the rogue! O! was für ein Scheuſal! O! what a horrible object! Ach! lieber Freund! ah! beloved friend! O! theuerſter Vater, O! dearest Father!

The genitive case is found after interjections: for example, Ach! des Elendes, ah! the misery! O! der Freude, oh! what joy! Ach! des Undankbaren, ah! the ungrateful wretch! Pfui! des ſchamloſen Menſchen, fie! what a shameless man! That case was not, as I suppose, originally the effect of the interjection, but of some other word, either substantive, or preposition, which, in process of time, has been omitted.

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* See page 353.

The dative of advantage or disadvantage,* occurs after certain terms, that may be called interjections, though they are not strictly of that description! as, Wohl ihm! happy him!—wohl dem Menschen, happy the man!—weh mir! woe is me!

The accusative is sometimes observed, after the interjection, as it is in Latin. O! mich unglücklichen, *O! me miserum!* O unhappy me! This also may be explained by an ellipsis. Perhaps a verb might be supplied, after the interjection, such as *see, pity!*

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* See page 439.

CHAPTER II.

ON SOME PECULIARITIES IN THE LANGUAGE.

THE first topick, in this chapter, to which we shall direct our attention, will be

*The Composition of Words.**

By this operation, the German language has the means of creating new terms, out of its own substance, and of supplying itself with expressions, for any ideas that may arise. Though almost every tongue possesses this resource, to a certain degree, yet the German enjoys the advantages, resulting from it, more amply than others. It is rich in compounds, and has the faculty of exercising its formative power, to a considerable latitude, under certain easy, and useful restrictions. The Greek language may perhaps exceed it in the number of compound words, with which the vocabulary abounds; but it must yield to the former, in the convenience, and precision, with which the act of composition is managed.

* Mr. Adelung has fully, and ably, discussed this subject, in his System (Lehrgebäude), Vol. II. p. 209—274; and his Orthography, p. 305—337.

A compound word is produced by the union of two, or more terms, into one. Such expressions, therefore, as these: *newspaper, tablecloth, fortuneteller, bosom-friend, winterseason, bookbinder, bookseller; watch-maker*, belong to that class.

The rules for composition, which are tacitly acknowledged, in German, and ought to be uniformly observed, are these two:

Rule I.—A compound word should consist of two distinct, and clear ideas. The terms, which enter into the composition, must furnish two ideas; and these ideas must be so perspicuous, that, when combined in one word, they may, at the first perception, render it intelligible. They ought to bring into the compound neither obscurity, nor ambiguity.

Rule II.—The prior term of the compound should define, and limit the other. Hence the first component may be called the *definite* or *particular term;* and the second, the *fundamental*, or *general*. For example: *Winterseason*. Two terms, giving two distinct ideas, *winter*, and *season*. The latter is the fundamental, or general term; which by the former, *winter*, is defined, and limited. *Season* is thereby circumscribed, and confined to one particular kind. *Newspaper:—paper* is undetermined, and liable to be variously conceived; but a definite term, *news*, being joined with it, the acceptation of the word is particularised: it is specified, what paper is meant. *Watchmaker:—a maker* is a person that makes *any thing;* but by the prior term, *watch*,

it is stated, how his art of making is defined, to what particular object it is limited.

These are the two rules of composition, to which some farther observations are now to be added.

1. In substantive compounds, the second component, or fundamental term, furnishes the gender.*

2. When two words are joined together, without the circumstance stated in the second rule, of the one's defining the other, such words are not to be regarded as compounds. Two terms may be in connexion, without that qualification, standing merely in apposition to one another. Such are *Prince Bishop, Queen Empress.* These words imply, that one person has two attributes, which, in other instances, would be linked by means of a conjunction, as *Emperour and King, Doctor and Professor:* but the first term cannot be said to define, and circumscribe the second. It is, therefore, wrong to write such words in *one.* All that may be allowed, in compliance with custom, is, to unite them by the sign of hyphen: as, *Prince-Bishop, Queen-Empress, or Empress-Queen.*

3. It may be considered as a subordinate precept, after those two rules have been duly put into practice, that the compound should neither be two long, nor harsh, to the ear. Respecting the length, it may be remarked,

* See page 133, VI.

that when it is insisted, that two terms, containing two ideas, should constitute the compound, this does not preclude the previous compound from being employed in the composition. Though one of the terms be a compounded word, yet in the composition, for which it is required, it is supposed to give only one simple idea. For example, das Silberbergwerk, the silver mine, consisting of Silber, silver, and Bergwerk, a mine, has for its second term, a compound word, Bergwerk: for, this is to be analysed into Berg, a mountain, and Werk, work; yet, the idea which this word affords towards the composition of Silberbergwerk, is simply one. Consequently, words may be doubly, or more times, compounded, without being disqualified from serving to a new composition according to the second rule. But on that account the intimation is here given, that it is not advisable to make the composition too long. If, however, it be found necessary to admit such words, the sign of hyphen (=) is resorted to, in order to break their extended appearance: as, General=Feldzeugmeister, Master General of the Ordnance; Reichs=General=Feldmarschall, Field-marshal General of the Empire.

4. The sign of hyphen is, moreover, employed, when either both components, or one of them, are foreign words: as, Das Reichs=Collegium, the council of the Empire; das *Criminal*-Gericht, the criminal court of justice; der Justitz-Rath, a council, or counsellor, of justice; das *Intelligenz*-Blatt, a paper for advertisements; das *Intelligenz*-*Comtoir*, the advertising office; das *Justitz*-*Collegium*, the court of justice. Not un-

frequently those foreign words are written in their own type, as is done in these examples, not in the German character.

5. By the process of composition are produced

(1) SUBSTANTIVES, in the following manner:

a. Both terms being Substantives. Examples: Die Abendſtunde, the evening-hour—from der Abend, the evening, and die Stunde, the hour; der Apfelbaum, the apple tree—der Apfel, and der Baum; das Rathhaus, the council house—der Rath, das Haus; der Arbeitslohn, wages for work—die Arbeit, die Lohn; der Sonntag, Sunday—die Sonne, der Tag; der Gottesdienſt, divine service—Gott, God, der Dienſt, the service; der Heldenmuth, heroick courage—der Held, the hero, der Muth, the courage; die Herzensgüte, goodness of heart—das Herz, die Güte.

b. The first term being an Adjective. Die Großmuth, magnanimity, groß, great, der Muth, spirit; die Schwermuth, heaviness of spirit, melancholy—ſchwer, heavy, der Muth,* spirit; die Eigenliebe, self love—eigen, proper, and die Liebe.

c. A Numeral the first term. Der Dreyfuß, the tripod—drey, three, der Fuß, the foot; das Viereck, the square

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* It will be noticed, that in those two last examples, there is a deviation from the first observation, relative to the gender of compound substantives; which circumstance is remarked, page 133, VI.

—vier, four, die Ecke,* the corner; das Achteck, the octagon—acht, eight.

d. The Pronoun Selbſt *the first term.* Das Selbſtgefühl, self feeling—das Gefühl; die Selbſtprüfung, self-examination—die Prüfung; der Selbſtſchuß, or Selbſchuß a spring-gun—der Schuß, an instrument for shooting.

e. A Verb the first term. Der Fechtboden, the fencing school—fechten, to fence, der Boden, the floor; die Reitbahn, the riding school—reiten, to ride, die Bahn, the course, the ground; das Wartgeld, pay for waiting, for attendance—warten, to wait, das Geld, money.

f. A Particle the first term, such as, ab, an, ein, &c. Die Abreiſe, the departure; die Ankunft, the arrival; der Eingang, the entrance.

(2) ADJECTIVES.

a. A Substantive being the first term. Tugendreich, rich in virtue—die Tugend, virtue, reich, rich; kraftvoll, full of strength, or power—die Kraft, voll; eiskalt, cold as ice—das Eis, kalt; goldgelb, yellow as gold—das Gold, gelb; pechſchwarz, black as pitch—das Pech, ſchwarz; gottesfürchtig, pious, fearing God—Gott, God, and fürchtig (an adjective, unusual out of composition); hülfsbedürftig, destitute, wanting help—die Hülfe, bedürftig.

b. An Adjective the first term. Leichtfertig, thoughtless, flighty; hellblau, sky blue; freywillig, voluntary; altklug, wise as an old man.

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* Gender varying; see the foregoing note.

c. A Numeral the first term. Dreyeckig, three cornered, triangular; viereckig, quadrangular, square; ſechsfüßig, six-footed; achtſeitig, having eight sides.

d. A Particle the first term. Abhängig, dependent; anſtändig, becoming; übermüthig, overbearing, insolent; zukünftig, future; ungläubig, unbelieving; ungerecht, unjust.

e. A Verb the first term. Denkwürdig, memorable—denken, to think of, and würdig, worthy; habſüchtig, avaricious—haben, to have, and die Sucht, eager, desire; liebenswürdig, lovely, amiable—lieben, to love, würdig, worthy: lobenswerth, praiseworthy—loben, to praise, werth, deserving.

(3) VERBS.

a. A Substantive being the first term. Brandſchatzen, to raise contributions, by the menace of fire—der Brand, fire, ſchatzen, to raise contributions; luſtwandeln, to walk for pleasure, to take a walk—die Luſt, pleasure, wandeln, to walk; wetteifern, to emulate—die Wette, the wager, competition, eifern, to be eager, or zealous; wetterleuchten, to lighten without thunder—das Wetter, the weather, the tempest, leuchten, to shine; handhaben, to handle—die Hand, the hand, haben, to have; ehebrechen, to commit adultery—die Ehe, the wedlock, brechen, to break.

b. An Adjective the first term. Frohlocken, to exult—froh; vollbringen, to accomplish—voll; vollziehen, to execute.

c. A Particle the first term. This species of composition has been treated of at large, in Part I. Chap. 4. Sect. p. 332.

(4) PARTICIPLES.

A Substantive being the first term. a. The Present participle: Ehrliebend, loving honour, generous, noble —die Ehre, the honour, liebend, loving; geſetzgebend, legislative—das Geſetz, the law, gebend, giving; wachhabend, having the guard, being on duty, as an officer—die Wache, the guard, habend, having.—b. The Preterite participle: Blumenbekränzt, crowned with flowers—die Blume, the flower, bekränzt, crowned; ſchneebedeckt, covered with snow —der Schnee, snow, bedeckt, covered: ſeegebohren, born of the sea—die See, the sea, gebohren, born.

(5) PARTICLES.

Compounded with Particles. Vorwärts, forward, zurück, back; hinein, into; heraus, out of; mithin, therefore; daher, thence; nunmehr, now.

6. The components often remain unaltered: as, Apfelbaum, Uhrmacher, tugendreich; but in many instances, the first term undergoes some change, either by letters being added, or omitted.

(1) LETTERS ADDED:

Es: as, Der Gottesdienſt, divine service—from Gott; die Geiſteskraft, power of mind—der Geiſt; die Todesnoth, agony of death—der Tod.

S: as, Das Himmelslicht, the light of heaven—der Himmel; das Eſelsohr, an ass's ear, the corner of a leaf in a book, turned down, a dog's ear—der Eſel; das Arbeitshaus,

the work-house—die Arbeit; der Geburtstag, the birth-day —die Geburt; das Hülfsmittel, means of assistance, resource—die Hülfe.

Ns, ens: as, Die Friedensfeier, the celebration of peace —der Friede; die Herzensgüte, goodness of heart—das Herz.

Those additional letters mark the genitive case, in the first component.

E: as, Das Herzeleid, affliction of heart—das Herz; die Missethat, the misdeed, the crime—from the participle miß; der Pferdearzt, the horse-doctor, the farrier—das Pferd; der Pferdefuß, the horse's foot—das Pferd; der Gänsebraten, the roasted goose—die Gans, the goose.

In some of these examples, the inserted *e* may be taken from the characteristick letter of the plural number.

N, or *en:* as, Das Freudenfest, the festival of joy, the jubilee—die Freude; das Drachenblut, dragon's blood—der Drache; der Heldenmuth, heroick courage—der Held, the hero; das Hirtenleben, pastoral life—der Hirt, the herdsman; der Bauernstolz, vulgar pride—der Bauer, the rustick; the clown.

The additional *n*, or *en*, may, in some instances, involve the genitive case, in others the plural number.

Er: as, Der Eierkuchen, the omlet—das Ey, the egg; and der Kuchen, the cake; die Bilderschrift, figurative writing—das Bild, the image, figure, and die Schrift, the writing; die Weiberlist, craft of women—das Weib, the woman, and die List, the cunning.

The letters *er* correspond, in these words, with the termination of their plurals.

I, only in two very ancient compounds: die Nachtigall, the nightingale, and der Bräutigam, the bridegroom.

(2) LETTERS OMITTED.

E, in substantives: as, Die Endſylbe, the final syllable —das Ende, the end; die Erbfolge, the succession—das Erbe, the inheritance, die Folge, the act of following, or succeeding; der Sonntag, Sunday—die Sonne; der Kirſchbaum, the cherry tree—die Kirſche.

En, in infinitives: as, der Fechtboden, the fencing-school—fechten, to fence; die Reitbahn, the riding-school —reiten, to ride; denkwürdig, memorable—denken, to think of, and würdig, worthy; habſüchtig, avaricious—haben, to have.

These omissions arise from the radical syllable, of the first component, being only employed in the composition.

7. It is not settled by rule, when, and how, those changes, in the first component, are to be made. The judgment of the person, who frames a compound, seems alone to determine the question. Sometimes, a diversity occurs in the state of the first component, as it is combined with different words: as, Der Bauerhof and der Bauernkrieg,—both from der Bauer, the husbandman, the peasant; die Ehrfurcht, and der Ehrenſchänder—from die Ehre; der Feuerherd, and die Feuersbrunſt—from das Feuer; das Herzblatt, das Herzleid, and die Herzensangſt,—from das Herz; das Kindbett, das Kindestheil, and die Kinderſtunde—from das

Kind. But even in the identick compounds, an uncertainty occasionally prevails: for example, Der Eichenbaum, and der Eichbaum, the oak-tree—from die Eiche, the oak: der Erdkloß, or Erdenkloß, the clod of earth—from die Erde; das Schweinfleiſch, or Schweinefleiſch, the pork—from das Schwein.

8. There are a few instances, in which a change of signification is effected by the mode of composition; as in, Der Landmann, and der Landsmann, the former denoting a husbandman, a peasant, and the latter a compatriot; der Landsherr, or Landes Herr, the sovereign of a country, and der Landherr, in former times, a great landholder, a lord of the manor.

9. The more ancient compounds cannot always be reduced to that analogy, by which the composition is now regulated.

10. When it happens that two, or more compound words occur in a sentence, having the second component the same, this component is frequently omitted in the first word, or words, and only expressed in the word which is last: as, Pfaffen- und Weiberliſt, craft of priests, and of women; Kriegs- und Friedenzeiten, times of peace and war; Bet-, Buß- und Faſttag, day of prayer, repentance and fasting. The hyphen is then put after the first word, or words.*

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* See p. 82, (c). This peculiarity of omitting the second component in preceding words, and expressing it only in the last, exists in the Spanish language, and also in the Swedish, Danish, and Dutch.

ON PURISM.

From the composition of words we conveniently proceed to the consideration of another subject, which may be regarded as connected with the former, and likewise as a peculiarity of the German language. It is that property, in virtue of which the language abstains from all foreign terms, having the faculty of producing native expressions, for whatever ideas the mind may conceive. If a new word is wanted for any object, or conception, it is only necessary to analyse such object, or conception, and to see of what elements, or simple ideas, it is composed. For these component parts, the language will, generally, furnish original terms, and these may, through the mechanism of composition, be so combined, as to afford a compound word, of genuine German ingredients, that will comprehend all the notions, with which the object, or conception, requires to be accompanied. We will not go into much detail, in order to illustrate this process by examples, but content ourselves with adverting only to one, or two instances. Supposing the French word *Courier* were to be rendered into German, let it be resolved into the component ideas. A *Courier* is a messenger, who is to proceed with speed: now we take *speed* and *messenger* to be the component parts of the conception. *Speed*, or *haste*, is Eile, in German, and Bote, a *messenger*. A *Courier*, therefore, may be rendered by der Eilbote. In like manner, the French word *Diligence*, applied to a carriage, which is supposed to travel with dispatch, may, according to the two consti-

tuent ideas, *speed* (or *dispatch*) and *carriage*, be found in the composition of der Eilwagen.

This mode of creating words is a powerful instrument to a language, and such languages as possess it, may convert it into a most efficient means of enriching, and perfecting themselves. It is a prerogative of the highest value, which it is a crime to neglect, or abandon. But if it is blamable to forego that advantage, in a case where a genuine German word may be supplied, by composition, to the exclusion of a foreign expression, how much greater must the delinquency be considered to be, if a foreign sound is preferred, where the native idiom is provided with a term of the same meaning and effect. Yet such is the influence of habit, and fashion, or the prevalence of inadvertency and negligence, that instances of that transgression are but too frequent.

The introduction of foreign words should be most carefully avoided, as nothing is more calculated to injure a language than thus placing it, as it were, under foreign bondage. It thereby loses its native energy and aptness, and is checked in the progress of its cultivation. And not only this; but it may be actually stript of what it already possessed: for the foreign intruders will, by degrees, displace the rightful citizens. This misfortune had, to a great extent, befallen the German tongue, from the time when a taste for imitating the French became predominant in Europe. It spread over Germany, in particular, after the Seven Years' war, when the country, being invaded by French armies, had been much familiarized with that nation. Before that period, there existed, among the learned and scientifick men, the pe-

dantry of intermixing their native idiom with Latin phrases, which, however, was never so far diffused over the community, as to become a popular grievance. No other modern tongue, besides the French, has to any considerable degree interfered with the German.

During the last thirty years, or upwards, the nation has become sensible of the errour, into which it has been betrayed, and has made efforts to get rid of that spurious admixture, by which its language had been disfigured. The first step, naturally, was to reinstate such German words as had been supplanted by foreign expressions, and to exclude the latter from all competition. It was next required to construct new German terms, in the room of such foreign words as had been introduced, and for which the language had before no synonymes of its own. In the exercise of this grammatical operation, it was not to be expected that, at once, that dexterity should be displayed, which would produce the aptest forms. It was unavoidable that a sort of awkwardness should, in many instances, appear, which, combined with the novelty of the subject, incited a strong opposition from persons, who clung to old habits, and deprecated every thing that resembled innovation. The question however, rested upon such good grounds, that resistance, by degrees, diminished, and *Purism* ultimately established its claims.

Those, who are acquainted with the principles of language generally, cannot fail to be converts to that theory, especially when the feasibility of it is demonstrated by experience, and practice. These have already shown, in the German tongue, what may be accomplished ; and

the examples of its sister languages, the Swedish, Danish, and Dutch, tend to confirm that doctrine. None perhaps will illustrate it more than the Dutch, a language, rich, copious, and highly cultivated, composed of a store of genuine native words, without intermixture of foreign idiom.

In endeavouring to purify the language, we have two resources: 1. To look for native expressions that may have been displaced by foreign terms, or have fallen into disuse, from some other cause. Whatever may be found of this description, in writers of earlier times, if it be unobjectionable, in point of grammatical form, and serviceable in regard to signification, should be reclaimed, and given back to the language. Even the provincial dialects may be called in aid, if they can afford what is wanting: for any word that is German, wherever produced, must be deemed preferable to one, imported from a foreign territory, if it has the same meaning. We may go farther, and say that it will be better to borrow from the sister tongues of the German, especially the Dutch, than from a language with which it had originally no connexion. 2. The other and most fruitful source, is that of which we have spoken, at the outset, namely the *Composition of Words.* With respect to this, it is indispensable that the rules, which the language has once acknowledged, should be carefully observed, and the laws of analogy be kept in view.

It is not to be denied, that the cause of Purism, as every other cause, may, by excess of zeal, be carried too far. There is a certain point, at which it ought to stop. There are words, which, though of foreign origin,

are so incorporated with the language, that they cannot be torn from it, without great violence. They are naturalized inhabitants of the country, that can no longer be arbitrarily removed. Such words should not be touched: they have the right of long usage and prescription, in their favour.* There are others which may be considered almost in the light of proper names, peculiarly, and exclusively belonging to the objects, which they designate. Of this kind are, for instance, Thee, tea: Kaffee, coffee; Chocolade, chocolate. To attempt to germanize such terms, would be an absurdity in the extreme. But with these modifications, *Purity* of language ought to be strongly insisted on, and earnestly recommended to the student. He must be jealous of every word which has the semblance of foreign idiom, and reject as false and spurious, whatever is marked with the stamp of another country.

The Use of the Genitive Case.

It often occurs, when there is apparently no words to govern it. Thus it expresses:

1. Relation of time. Des Abends, in the evening; des Morgens,† in the morning; des Mittags, at noon; des

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* This kind of forbearance is recommended by Cicero, in these words (De Fin. III, 2)—*ea verba, quibus ex instituto veterum utimur pro Latinis—quamquam Latine ea dici poterant, tamen quoniam usu recepta sunt, nostra ducamus.*

† The same idiom prevails in the Greek language: as, ὄρθρου, early in the morning; νυκτὸς, in the night.

Nachts,* in the night; Sonnabends, on Saturday: Montages, on Monday; eines Tages, one day, on a certain day; heutiges Tages, this day; einmal des Monathes, once in a month; viermal des Jahres, four times in a year; zwey ganzer Stunden, two whole hours.

2. Relation of place. Dieses Ortes, in this place; gehörigen Ortes, in, or at, a proper place; aller Orte, in all places, every where.

3. Way and manner. Gerades (or geraden) Weges, straightways; stehenden Fußes, immediately; dieser Gestalt, in this manner; folgender Gestalt, in the following manner; meines Theils, on my part; unsern Theils, on our part; meines Wissens, to my knowledge; meines Bedünkens, in my opinion; einiger Maßen, in some measure; gewisser Maßen, in a certain degree; unverrichteter Sache, not having effected one's purpose. Add the following phrases: Hungers sterben, to die of hunger; eines schmerzlichen Todes sterben, to die a painful death; der Hoffnung leben, to live in hope; des Zutrauens leben, to live with confidence, that is, to place confidence in a thing, to entertain a confident opinion. With the verb seyn: as, Willens seyn, to intend; der Meinung seyn, to be of opinion; des Todes seyn, to perish.

The peculiar use of this case has been adverted to, in the First Part.† It owes its existence indisputably to the

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* Here the article corresponds with the termination, and not with the gender, of the substantive. See. p. 361.

† Pages 361 and 362.

omission of some governing word: but it is not, in general, easy to fill up the ellipsis. In practice, it is sufficient to know, that such is the usage.

The Use of the Accusative.

This case is employed to mark time, both as to date, and duration.—*Date:* Den zehnten Tag nach der Schlacht, the tenth day after the battle; so war es das erste Jahr, thus it was (in) the first year; den neunten Juli, the ninth of July; vorigen Dienstag, last Tuesday: drey mal die Woche, (acc.) three times a week—*Duration:* Ich bin den ganzen Tag zu Hause gewesen, I have been at home the whole day; ich werde noch einen Monath in der Stadt bleiben, I shall remain yet a month in town; verweilen Sie einen Augenblick, stay one moment. The adverb lang, long, is frequently subjoined, to mark the duration: as, Zehn Jahre lang, for ten years.

After certain adjectives, and verbs, signifying weight, measure, extent, age, price, value, such as, *great, broad, heavy, to weigh, to cost,* the accusative follows. Einen Fuß breit, a foot broad; einen Monath alt, a month old; es wiegt einen Zentner, it weighs a cent-weight.

Space and motion are indicated by the accusative. Einen langen Weg gehen, to go a long way; den Berg hinunter laufen, to run down the mountain; er geht einen guten Schritt, he walks a good pace.

Nouns of Measure and Quantity

leave the words, which follow them, unaltered: as, Zwölf Ellen Tuch, twelve yards of cloth; fünf Pfund Fleisch, five pounds of meat; Zehn Thaler Silber, ten dollars of silver

coin; eine Menge Fiſche, a quantity of fish: Sometimes however, the genitive is used: as, Eine Summe Geldes, a sum of money; ein Haufen Goldes, a heap of gold; eine Menge Volkes, a crowd of people; eine Meile Weges, a mile of the way, that means, a mile distant; more especially, when an adjective precedes the substantive: as, ein Gericht ſchöner Fiſche, a dish of fine fish*. Sometimes von may be employed: as, die Menge von Brot, the great quantity of bread; ein kleiner Theil von Fleiſch, a small portion of meat.

The Gender

is deviated from, when the meaning of the word is more regarded, than its grammatical nature. Dieſes Frauenzimmer iſt am ſchönſten, wenn ſie ſich nicht ſchminkt, this lady is most handsome when she does not paint herself. Frauenzimmer is of the neuter gender, but the pronoun ſie, she, is feminine, because this is the gender, which the subject ought naturally to have, though, from a grammatical combination, the appellative differs. Er liebt ſein Weib nicht, ſondern mißhandelt ſie, he does not love his wife, but ill treats her. Weib is neuter, and the feminine ſie answers to it. Add these passages, from Gellert: Ein Frauenzimmer, die Tugend und Verſtand beſitzt —Ein ſchönes Frauenzimmer, die gegen den Liebhaber nur gar zu lange ſpröde thut. The relative die, does not agree with the grammatical gender of Frauenzimmer, which is neuter. In the Latin grammar, this would be called *constructio ad sensum.*

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* Compare p. 168.

The Number.

The English often admit a different Number, in the verb, from what the subject nominative, according to strict grammar, would require, which may also be referred to *constructio ad sensum.* Namely, when a *collective noun* precedes, though in the singular, the verb, belonging to it, frequently stands in the plural: as, "all the company *were* present; the army of martyrs *praise* thee." It should be *was*, and *praises*, because *company* and *army*, are of the singular number. But being collectives, that is to say, words which comprehend several individuals, the idea of plurality is followed, and the grammatical number set aside. The Germans, however, do not allow *this* deviation, but always adhere to the number of the subject nominative.

On the other hand, in some instances, they use the singular number collectively, in reference to more than one subject, where the English are particular in employing the plural. For example, Zehn Menſchen haben ihr Leben eingebüßt, ten persons have lost their *life*; where the English would say, *lives*. Mehr als hundert Bürger haben ihren Namen unterzeichnet, more than a hundred citizens have subscribed their *name*,—in English *names*. Other languages, not only modern, but also the Greek and Latin, coincide with the practice of the Germans.* To the former examples the following may be added: Die rothe, blaue, und gelbe Farbe, the red, blue, and yellow *colour*—

* Compare the Exercises, p. 126. note 3.

in English, *colours;* Die Franzöſiſche und Italieniſche Sprache, the French and Italian *language*—in English, *languages.* In these two last examples, the German idiom may be accounted for by the figure ellipsis, thus : die rothe (Farbe), blaue (Farbe), und gelbe Farbe, the red (colour), the blue (colour), and the yellow colour. Die Franzöſiſche (Sprache) und Italieniſche Sprache, the French (language), and Italian language.

The Dative Singular

of the first and second personal pronouns, mir, dir, is, in familiar language, often inserted, merely as an expletive : Du biſt mir ein ſchöner Kerl, thou art a fine fellow ! Ich lobe mir den Rheinwein, I give the preference to Rhenish wine ; das mag dir eine Freude geweſen ſeyn, that must have been a (great) joy ! The plural is also thus found, especially of the second person : Das war euch eine Luſt, that was a pleasure ! das war euch ein Feſt, that was a festivity ! The third personal likewise is to be met with, in this expletive character : as, Ein Kranker der ihm ſtarb, one of his patients who died ; though here the personal ihm, to him, represents, in fact, the possessive his. —Those expletive pronouns may be supposed originally to have meant, *with regard to me, to thee, to you* : or, *in my idea, thy idea, your idea.*

The Possessive Pronoun

is, sometimes, put after the genitive case : as, Des Vater ſein Bruder, the father *his* brother ; der Frau ihr Kind,

the woman her child, instead of, the woman's child.* It seems, that the pronoun acts as a substitute for the termination of the noun; consequently, it is wrong to say, Des Vaters ſein Kind, des Mannes ſein Buch; instead of, des Vater ſein Kind, des Mann ſein Buch; though this circumstance may not be always attended to, in practice.

When, in English, an individual object of possession is to be indicated, from a greater number of the same kind, the possessive pronoun absolute, with *of* before it, is placed after the substantive: as, *a friend of mine, a servant of yours, an acquaintance of ours, a book of his.* In German this must be differently expressed: for instance, Ein Freund von mir, a friend of me, or, einer von meinem Freunden, one of my friends; ein Bedienter von uns, a servant of us, or, einer von unſern Bedienten, one of our servants; eines von ſeinen Büchern, one of his books.

It has been noticed, in another place,† that the genitive of the demonstrative pronoun, deſſen, deren, and in the plural derer, is occasionally employed in the room of the possessives, ſein, and ihr.

The Demonstrative Dieſer, dieſe, dieſes,

may be referred to what is past, present, or future. Dieſe Nacht, may signify *this night*, that is to say, the night which is now existing, or which is to come; and

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* This has been noticed, p. 287, 5.

† P. 241, 3.

also *last night*, or that which is to come. The English prónoun *this*, is hardly ever used in the latter sense.

The Relative Pronoun

is, in English, sometimes omitted, and to be understood: in German, it must always be expressed.* With auch or auch immer, following, it signifies, whoever, whosoever, whatever, whatsoever: as, Wer auch der Mann ſeyn mag, whoever may be the man; was auch immer die Folge ſeyn mag, whatever may be the consequence.—Was occurs, instead of etwas, something.

Einige, and etliche, *some*,

joined with numerals, denote an undetermined excess of the number mentioned: as, Einige, or etliche, zwanzig Pfund, some twenty pounds, that is, twenty pounds, and some odd ones besides. When prefixed to a hundred, or a superior number, they intimate a repetition of the same: as, Einige hundert Menſchen, some hundreds of men; etliche tauſend Thaler, some thousands of dollars.

Alle und jede, all and every one.

This is almost the only instance, in which jeder suffers the plural number.

Alle,

in common life, signifies, sometimes, that a thing is consumed, finished, that nothing of it is left: as, Der Wein iſt alle, the wine is finished; die Erdbeeren ſind alle, the strawberries are eaten.

See p. 248. 5.

Meines gleichen, deines gleichen, ſeines gleichen, ihres gleichen, eures gleichen

mean, people of an equal situation with me, thee, him, her, them, you.

Irgend ein, irgend eine, any, or any one.

Ein Paar, a few.* Vor ein paar Tagen, a few days ago, the other day.

The Infinitive

of the active voice, after certain verbs, not unfrequently has a passive signification.† Laß ihn rufen, let him call, may also signify, let him be called; der Richter hieß ihn binden, the judge ordered him to bind, also to be bound; wir ſahen ihn ſchlagen, we saw him beating, also, being beaten. Nun war nichts zu thun, now there was nothing to be done, literally, to do. Es iſt zu hoffen, it is to hope, that is, to be hoped; es iſt zu befürchten, it is to fear, that is to be feared. But in the use of this construction, care must be had to avoid any ambiguity of meaning, which, in certain circumstances, might exist.

The *Infinitive*, of the verbs dürfen, ſollen, können, mögen, laſſen, müſſen, wollen, hören, ſehen, is substituted for

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* Compare p. 161. A similar idiom, is to be found, in some provinces of England.

† See Exercises, p. 148, note 2. Compare

the *Preterite Participle*, when an infinitive precedes.* Ich habe es nicht thun dürfen, (for gedurft), I was not allowed to do it; du hätteſt kommen ſollen, (for geſollt), you ought to have come; wir hätten es ſehen können, (for gekonnt), we might have seen it; er hat ein Haus bauen laſſen, (for gelaſſen), he has caused a house to be built; ich habe ihn anhören müſſen (for gemußt), I have been obliged to listen to him; hätten wir ausgehen wollen, (for gewollt), had we been inclined to go out; ich habe ihn reden hören, (for gehört), I have heard him speak; ich habe ihn reiten ſehen, (for geſehen), I have seen him ride.—Lehren, to teach, and lernen, to learn, likewise allow the use of this infinitive; though the preterite participle is, at present, more frequently employed: as, Er hat mich ſchreiben lehren, or gelehrt, he has taught me to write; ich habe bey ihm zeichnen lernen, or gelernt, I have learnt of him to draw.

The English admit the *Infinitive* after the words, *who*, *what*, *where*, *how*: for example, "I do not know what to do; I will tell you how to act, where to go, whom to address." The German infinitives cannot be placed in such a construction; the sentences must, therefore, be differently formed: as, Ich weiß nicht, was ich thun ſoll, I know not what I must do: ich will Ihnen ſagen, wie Sie handeln müſſen, wohin Sie gehen müſſen, mit wem Sie

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* See Exercises, p. 149, note 2, where the subject is very well stated. Compare Adelung's Dictionary under the word Hören.

ſprechen müſſen, I will tell you how you ought to act, where you ought to go, whom you ought to address.

The Infinitive, with zu, is put, where the English avail themselves of the participle, with a preposition, such as *of*, *from*, and others. For example, Das Vergnügen einen Freund zu ſehen, the pleasure *of* seeing a friend; Gelegenheit zu reiſen, opportunity *of* travelling. Ich wurde abgehalten zu ſchreiben, I was prevented *from* writing. This peculiarity has been remarked in the first chapter.*

That *Infinitives* may be turned into substantives, by having the article, of the neuter gender, prefixed, has been already noticed.†

The Preterite Participle

of certain verbs, is united with the verb kommen, to come, in an active signification, to express the manner of coming: as, Er kömmt geritten, he comes riding, on horseback; er kömmt gegangen, he comes walking, on foot; er kömmt gefahren, he comes driving, in a carriage; er kömmt gelacht, he comes laughing. See above.‡ Sometimes, the preterite participle seems to be a substitute for the imperative mood: as, Roſen auf den Weg geſtreut, und des Harms vergeſſen, strew roses on the path, and forget sorrow; die Stube aufgeräumt, clear the room; in which examples Geſtreut und aufgeräumt, are preterite participles.§

Wohl,

whether considered as an adverb, or a conjunction, is

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* P. 428, B.

† P. 355 See also p. 125, 5. ‡ P. 358.

§ See Appendix to the Elements, sect. VIII, note 44.

often found, where the English can affix no distinct meaning to it. It seems to be a sort of expletive; in this character, however, it conveys certain ideas, which give to the sentences a peculiar modification. Sometimes the notions, *may be*, *perhaps*, *probably*, *about*, *nearly*, *indeed*, may correspond with it. It occurs in questions: as, haben Sie wohl gehört, was man davon redet? have you perhaps heard, what is said of it?—and accompanies verbs in an undetermined, and conditional construction: as, Ich möchte wohl lesen, I should like to read (if I could). Not seldom, it resembles the Italian *ben*, *bene*, *pur*, *pure*, in its expletive capacity.—The adverb *Well*, noting, of a good quality, in a good manner, not ill, is, in German, generally rendered by gut; by which means the confusion, that might arise, between this signification and the expletive, is obviated. For example: Ich weiß nicht, wo man diese Sachen gut kaufen kann, I know not, where one may buy these things *well*. In this instance, if wohl were used; it would, by the generality of readers, be accepted with an expletive meaning.

Gern, willingly: comparative, lieber, more willingly; superlative, am liebsten, most willingly.

By this adverb, the idea, *to like*, *to be fond of*, is furnished: as, Etwas gern thun, to do a thing willingly, to like to do it; etwas gern essen, to eat a thing willingly, that is, to like it; etwas gern mögen, to like to eat a thing.* Etwas gern sehen, to see a thing willingly, to see

* See p. 273.

it with approbation; hence, to like, to approve. Er ißt Gemüſe lieber als Fleiſch, he likes vegetables better than meat; literally he eats more willingly. Sie ſehen es am liebſten, they see it with most pleasure, that means, they like it best. The use of lieber, and am liebſten, will be readily understood, from that of gern.

Hin and Her.

The former signifies motion from the place, in which you are, to another; and the latter from another place, towards you. Thus it has been explained before.* Hin und her, backwards and forwards.

Da,

combined with prepositions, and followed by the conjunction daß, sits as a substitute for the English participle, united with a preposition. Examples: *By reading much he became learned,* dadurch daß er viel las, wurde er gelehrt. *From talking too much, mischief often comes,* daraus daß man zu viel ſchwatzt, entſteht oft Unheil; *justice consists in giving every one his own;* Gerechtigkeit beſteht darin, daß man jedermann das ſeine gibt.

Doch,

put after an imperative, has the power of entreating, and exhorting, answering, in general, to the French *donc*, and, frequently, to the English *pray!* Examples: Sagen Sie mir doch, pray tell me; ſeyn Sie doch ſo gut, pray, be

* P. 338.

so good. Was ſagte er doch, pray, what did he say? War das doch ein Lärm, what a noise that was! Occasionally, it may be rendered by *somehow*: as, Ich fand mich doch bald wieder, I somehow, soon found my way here.—In Lower Saxony, it is used for the affirmative Ja, when a negative precedes.

Ja,

besides its affirmative signification, *yes*, has an expletive faculty, in which it may often be translated by, *indeed, truly, certainly, see, I see, I wonder, forsooth.* Examples: Sie kommen ja ſpät, you certainly áre coming late, or, I wonder you come so late. Sie ſind ja recht groß geworden, you, indeed, are grown very tall. Er ſtellt ſich ja ſehr ſonderbar an, he, forsooth! behaves in a very singular manner.—Ja wohl, certainly, yes certainly.—Ja, combined with a negative, be it the particle nicht, or ein, or the adjective kein, may be rendered by the same expletive terms, *pray, certainly, see,* &c. but frequently it strengthens the expression, as, Ja nicht, on no account; ja nie, *never*, spoken emphatically. The negative particle commonly stands after the object; ja, immediately after the verb;* as, Vergeſſen Sie ja den Brief nicht, on no account forget the letter.

Mitten,

before the prepositions in, and unter, signifies, in the midst of: as, Mitten in ſeiner Rede, in the midst of his

* Compare the Exercises p. 155, note 3.

discourse: mitten unter den Feinden, in the midst of the enemy.

Noch

signifies an addition where the English use more. Noch eins, one thing more; Noch einmal, once more, noch immer, still, by continuance, constantly. Er bleibt noch immer in London, he still continues in London.

A Comparison

of things equal, is, in English, made by the repetition of *as:* for example, ' *as* brave *as* Cæsar.' In German, the first particle is rendered by so, and the second by als, or wie: So tapfer als Cäsar. The word *than*, after the comparative *more*, is expressed by als. Sometimes, the English put *but* after a comparative degree, instead of *than:* for example, ' There was nothing farther to be done, *but* to fight.' The German als, must here be retained. Wie is occasionally substituted for als.

The Negative

Nicht, is often used by the Germans, where the English would deem it superfluous: as, Es ist über einen Monath, seitdem ich Sie nicht gesehen habe, it is above a month, since I have [*not*] seen you. The sentence certainly contains a negative idea, which, however, is, in English, omitted.

In interrogative exclamations, the *negative* gives emphasis. Wie viele Menschen sind nicht in diesem Kriege umgekommen, how many men have [*not*] perished in this war!

Wie ſtolz ſchien er nicht, how proud did he [*not*] appear! The French also make use of the negative. *Quel bruit ces hommes* n'auroient-ils pas *fait, s'ils m'avoient attrapé à un tel banquet!*

Not a, Not any, are, in German, commonly expressed by kein, none.*

Two Negatives, in the same sentence, are improper, because they are useless. For, they do not affirm as in Latin, nor add to the force of the negation, as in Greek. Yet they occur not only in the language of common life, but also in the best writers. Der Kaiſer und die Ligue ſtanden gewaffnet und ſiegreich in Deutſchland, und nirgends keine Macht, die ihnen Widerſtand leiſten konnte,† the Emperour and the league now stood armed, and victorious, in Germany, and there was *no power no where* to resist them. Er darf alles was er kann, und iſt keinem andern nichts ſchuldig, he dare to do, what he can do, and is under *no* obligation to *no one*.‡ Da er ſich vollkommen wohl bewußt iſt, nie keine Ehre gehabt zu haben, as he is perfectly conscious *never* to have possessed *no* honour.§ Nur kein Geld hat ſie nicht, only she has *not got no* money, that is, not any money.‖ Sometimes, indeed, there may appear to be energy in the repetition of the

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* Compare Exercises p. 156, note, 5.

† Schiller's Geſchichte des dreiſſigjährigen Krieges. Vol. I. p. 227.

‡ Wieland's Agathon, Vol. 1. p. 154.

§ Wieland's Agathon, Vol. 3. p. 109.

‖ Leſſing's Luſtſpiele. Der Schatz, Scene 1, vol. 2. p. 167.

negative; but, altogether, it should be rather considered as a species of negligence in composition.

About, nearly.

This idea, accompanying numbers, is differently given. 1. By certain adverbs, viz. beynahe, etwa, faſt, ungefähr, wohl, bis. Es ſind wohl drey Jahre, it is about three years; ungefähr zehn Pfund, about ten pounds; zwey bis drey Wochen, from two to three weeks. 2. In common life, but incorrectly, by eine, which seems to be corrupted from einige: as, Eine acht Tage, about eight days. 3. By ein being prefixed to the substantive, and the termination er added to the latter: for example, Ein Stücker zehn, about ten pieces, (das Stück, the piece); ein Ehler drey, about three yards, (die Ehle, the yard); ein Jahrer fünf, about five years, (das Jahr, the year). The syllable er is supposed to be the remains of oder, or; consequently, ein Stücker zehn, would be said, instead of ein Stück oder zehn, one piece or ten. Thus, eine Ehle oder drey, one yard or three, ein Jahr oder fünf, one year or five. Whatever may be the true origin of this constructiou, it is not to be recommended for imitation. Nor is the following entitled to more regard, which consists, 4. in the use of the prepositions, an, bey. An die zwanzig, nearly twenty; bey die vierzig, nearly forty.—Gegen, would be more proper.

The omission of the Conjunctions daß, *that, and* wenn, *if,*

has been adverted to, in other places. When these conjunctions are to be understood, the verb is some-

times put in the indicative mood, and sometimes in the subjunctive. *Indicative,* daß, being understood; as, Ich behaupte, es wird regnen, I maintain (that) it will rain; ich glaube, es iſt Zeit, I believe (that) it is time. Wenn being understood: as, Kömmt er zu mir, ſo jage ich ihn fort, (if) he comes to me, I shall send him away. Kömmſt du heute nicht, ſo kömmſt du morgen, (if) thou dost not come to-day, thou wilt come to-morrow. Willt du reich in der Armuth ſeyn,* (if) thou wilt be rich in poverty.

Träget das Schickſal dich, ſo trage du wieder das Schickſal,
Folg' ihm willig und froh, willt du nicht folgen, du mußt.†

(If) Fate bears with thee, bear thou again with Fate,
Follow it willingly and cheerfully, (if) thou *wilt* not follow, thou *must.*

Subjunctive, daß being understood; as: Er ſagt, es ſey wahr, he says *(that)* it is true. Wenn being understood: as, Wäre ich in Frankreich, *(if)* I were in France, were I in France.

The Conjunction, So,

is employed to connect a sentence, when the prior member of it begins with a consecutive, causal or conditional conjunction.‡ Da er ſich der Stadt näherte, ſo fand er die Wälle von den Feinden beſetzt, when he approached the town,

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* Herder's Zerſtreute Blätter, vol. 2. p. 10.

† Ibid. vol. 1. p. 21.

‡ I. Compare p. 389.

he found the ramparts occupied by the enemy. Wenn man ſich in den Wiſſenſchaften auszeichnen will, ſo muß man ununterbrochenen Fleiß beſitzen, if a person would distinguish himself in the sciences, he must possess unceasing industry. —So is not always required, after the consecutive, and causal, such as da, when; als, as; wie, as; weil, because: but it is rarely left out, after the conditional conjunctions, such, as wenn, if; obſchon, obleich, wennſchon, wenngleich, although. When the conditional is not given, in the prior member, but to be understood, it is necessary to make use of ſo, in the subsequent: as, Hätte ich das gewußt, ſo wäre ich nicht gekommen, had I known that, I should not have come; which stands for, Wenn ich das gewußt hätte, if I had known that—therefore ſo must be inserted, in the following member. It is to be recommended after consecutive, and causal conjunctions, when the antecedent member is of some length, or consists of several links. So is also found to correct sentences, of which the first has the verb in the imperative mood, but no conjunction; as, Vertraue Gott, ſo wird er dir helfen, trust in God, and he will help thee.

When Obgleich, obſchon, or a similar word, noting, though, although, precedes; doch, yet, or a synonymous conjunction, generally follows. Ob er gleich jung iſt, ſo hat er doch viele Erfahrung, although he is young, he has (nevertheless) great experience.

Sondern, *but*,

has a disjunctive sense, and is exclusively, and solely,

used after a negative: as, Es friert nicht, ſondern es thaut, it does not freeze, but it thaws*.

Cases Absolute.

The accusative case, joined to the preterite participles is taken absolutely.† Examples: Das Geſicht nach Oſten gekehrt, his face being turned to the east; den Blick nach dem Vaterlande gewendet, his looks being turned towards his country; die Augen nach dem Himmel gerichtet, his eye, being directed towards heaven; dieſen Umſtand vorausgeſetzt, this circumstance being supposed; den Gewinn abgerechnet, the gain being deducted; dieß ausgenommen, this being excepted.

Contractions

have been mentioned, upon the former occasions: for example, of the pronoun Es, it, with other words:‡ mirs, from mir es, dirs—dir es, gibs—gib es, ſprachs—ſprach es, wars—war es; and of the definite article, with prepositions:§ am, from an dem, im—in dem, ins—in das, zur—zu der. Contractions ſhorten the expression, but it is not always an advantage to do this. They should be avoided, when they interfere with the softness, and fluency of the language; and even the best of them are more calculated for common speech, than for dignified composition.

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* See p. 392.

† P. 447.

‡ P. 233, 5.

§ P. 384.

CHAPTER III.

ON THE ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

THE verbal arrangement, in German, is neither regulated by the natural construction, so that the words should be placed, in a sentence, in the same succession, as they depend upon, or govern, one another : nor conducted according to the loose dictates of cadence, or rhythm.* The several parts of speech claim their posi-

* The ancient, and most of the modern tongues, have no sure standard for the collocation of their words. The instruction, which Cicero gives upon this subject, is, that a proper symmetry should be observed in a sentence, and the words harmoniously combined. *Collocabuntur igitur verba, aut ut inter se quàm aptissimè cohæreant extrema cum primis, eaque sint quàm suavissimis vocibus ; aut ut forma ipsa concinnitasque verborum conficiat ordinem suum, aut ut comprehensio numerosè et aptè cadat.* Orator, 42. This only affords a vague and fluctuating idea : for, the notions of symmetry and harmony, of cadence and rhythm, are undefined, and variable ; because they must be referred to the sensation, and judgement of every individual. The ear alone is

tion, by virtue of certain rules, which are indisputably

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to decide, and that may be variously affected, in various persons. Cicero, indeed, seems to think, that there is a latent principle of correctness in the sense of hearing, which may be relied on: *Aures enim, vel animus aurium nuntio, naturalem quandam in se continet vocum omnium mensionem*, ibid. 53. *Esse in oratione numerum quendam, non est difficile cognoscere: judicat enim sensus*, ibid. 55. But the competency of that criterion may well be doubted, when it is recollected, what a diversity there exists in the faculty of that sense, and the justness of its perception. If we allow, that the ear of an orator, favoured by nature, may, through practice and attention, become so habituated to the rhythm of eloquence, as to produce that proportion and harmony, in his speech, to which Cicero alludes: yet other means will be wanted for those, who do not possess such advantages. The moderns, who have commented on the collocation of words, in the Latin language, have in vain endeavoured to establish a more tangible, and positive, principle. What they have propounded, is sufficient, and unsatisfactory. Thus *Ernesti*, in his *Initia Doctrinæ Selidioris* (ed. Lips. 1758,) p. 868, § 364, says:—*quod dignius est et majus, vel prius vel commune, præponemus; item ad quod magis attendi velimus—sed tamen in hoc posteriori genere nihil satis certum, &c.* And those who have handled the subject, after Ernesti, such as Scheller, Görenz, Bröder, and others, have not been more successful.

established, and interwoven with the very character of the language. To violate those rules, is as much an offence, as to disobey any other leading precept of grammar. It would mark the ignorance of a person as strikingly, as, for instance, an errour in the gender. By a fault of this kind, a foreigner would be most easily betrayed. For these reasons, it appears of consequence, that this subject should be thoroughly understood: but, strange to say! it has, in general, been overlooked, and neglected. The natives themselves seem, for a long time, to have been unconscious of this extraordinary property in their language, which had become familiar and habitual to them, from their infancy. To this circumstance it must be attributed, that it has passed unnoticed by so many grammarians, as have written on the German tongue. Foreigners have, thence, been induced to believe, that the collocation of words, in German, is arbitrary, and that it is not an object of grammatical necessity, and importance, but one superficially recommended for imitation. This statement of the question is, in the highest degree, fallacious, and absurd. An infringement of the laws of position is felt, by a native, the moment it occurs: and I ask, could such a sensation possibly take place, if that, from which it proceeds, did not exist? The negative of any proposition being remarked, the mind, which notices that negative, must surely, at the same time, be impressed with an idea of the affirmative. When I say, that a thing is *not black*, I should not be qualified to make that declaration, unless I had previously conceived the positive notion of *black*. Thus, when a fault is observed, it would be contradictory to

assert, that there is no rule for what is correct. If that were the case, I wish to be told, by what means that fault might have been detected. It is impossible to see errour, when we are ignorant of the truth, or to be sensible of what is wrong, without having a perception of what is right.

By this mode of reasoning I was led, very early, to conclude, that the arrangement of words, in the German language, was definable by rule. In my intercourse with foreigners, the manner in which they placed the words, when they attempted to speak, or write, German, engaged my attention. I knew enough of language, in general, to judge, that, when they made use of a wrong collocation, this was not owing to an accidental difference of rhythm, but to a radical, and permanent defect: the source of which I endeavoured to trace, and to discover the necessary remedies. I confess, that I pursued this speculation entirely unassisted: and appropriated to myself the result of the enquiry, as far as it went, without dividing it with any other person.* The system which I established, had for its foundation, the common division of the parts of speech. To each, I assumed that a proper place belonged, in a sentence, that they stood in a certain relation, and influenced one another, in point of

* I advert to this circumstance, because I have since found, that Mr. Adelung had entered into a similar investigation: with which I had been acquainted, the progress of my own researches would probably have been accelerated.

rank, and order. That theory appears to be uncontradicted in practice, and I have, by repeated experience, been fully convinced of its real utility. Without the benefit of such aid, the labour, to a foreigner, of acquiring the German tongue, is almost endless. He may know, with accuracy, the various topicks of grammar, and be abundantly provided with phraseology; he may have learnt the best pronunciation, and made himself master of every other advantage: yet, if he is not initiated in the mystery of the arrangement of words, his language will ever remain ungainly, and defective. By long and unwearied attention, united with a nice and discerning ear, he may, perhaps, approximate to that habit, which the natives have imbibed, from their cradle: but he will not stand on safe ground, if he is merely to depend on habitual, and obscure sensations, which may leave him in doubt, whenever the peculiarities of other idioms intrude upon his recollection. These observations rest upon simple, and obvious facts, which cannot escape the notice of any one, who is competent to judge of these matters. I have met with that deficiency, of which I have been speaking, in foreigners, who had diligently studied, and long practised the German language; and might, in every other respect, be said to be completely in possession of that acquirement.

All those embarrassments, and difficulties, the following rules undertake to remove; and if they succeed to any considerable degree, in this object, which, I confidently affirm, they do, their value cannot be mistaken. Indeed, I look upon this portion of the present work, as perhaps the most interesting of the whole: for I may

say, that the disquisition was new, and the elucidations obtained, satisfactory, and useful. The subject certainly could not be considered as trite and common, when, even in our days, it was so imperfectly comprehended by the natives, that several enlightened writers have been led into errour. So little was its nature understood, that some men of literary eminence have proclaimed their ignorance of it, by their rash attempts to change this constitutional part of the language. But whatever the weight of their authority, and example, might be, it was impossible, they could accomplish so ill-conceived a project.* The verbal arrangement will maintain itself,

* I have always regretted to class with these innovators the venerable PLATNER; and wondered, that a philosopher, like him, should have fallen into such a mistake. It seems, that he was desirous of giving to his writings every facility to be understood; to effect which, he adopted, in a great measure, what is called the natural construction, imagining that this was synonymous with simplicity, and plainness of composition. But the consequence was, that a new language was thus created which was not German, being deprived of the essential characteristick of verbal arrangement. Hence difficulty, and embarrassment are experienced, in reading the works of that author. For, by not allowing the ideas to flow in their accustomed channel, but forcing them to pass through a new and unusual direction, a restraint is imposed upon the operation of the mind, and its mechanical habits are impeded. The reader will find in the philosophical Aphorisms, enough to justify these obser-

in spite of the attacks, which may be directed against it, by a false spirit of reformation. The feelings of the whole nation will oppose themselves to those erroneous, and unprofitable designs.

The following rules are abstracted from the practice of the best writers, and the manner of speaking, among the well educated classes of society. It need scarce be remarked, that to the poet a certain latitude is granted, in regard to the position of words, so as to favour the

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vations. Mr. Campe, whose grammatical labours claim the regard and gratitude of all who know how to value the German language, has noticed that aberration from the true idiom, in his valuable Treatise, on the Principles, Rules, and Limits of Purity in the German Language—Grundſätze, Regeln und Gränzen der Verdeutſchung (prefixed to his Supplementary Dictionary), p. 105, first edition, or p. 65, edition of 1813; and expressed his disapprobation of it, though he has not placed it in that strong light of censure, in which I have felt myself obliged to represent it. Recent authors have attempted to give to their composition an attraction of novelty, as to style, by departing from the genuine and classical arrangement of words, which belongs to the German language. It will not be doing them an injustice to charge them with ignorance of the true character of their native tongue: it is only to be hoped, that their example will not lead to a general subversion of those laws, by which the language has hitherto been governed.

exigencies of rythme, and metre.—The Chapter will consist of the following sections:

1. *Position of the Noun Substantive.*
2. *Of the Noun Adjective.*
3. *The Pronoun.*
4. *The Verb.*
5. *The Participle.*
6. *The Adverb.*
7. *The Preposition.*
8. *The Conjunction.*
9. *The Interjection.*

SECTION I.

POSITION OF THE NOUN SUBSTANTIVE.

Rule I.—The Substantive, in the nominative case, being *the subject* of a sentence, is placed before the verb.*

Note.—*The Subject* is to be distinguished from *the Object*: the former governs the verb, and the latter is governed by the verb: for instance, Der Vater liebt ſeinen Sohn, the father loves his son. Here, der Vater is *the Subject*, which governs the verb, that is to say, the verb must agree with it, in number and person;† ſeinen Sohn, is *the Object*, which is governed by the verb, because it must, in compliance with the nature of the verb, stand

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* I make no mention of the article, because it is obvious, that it must always stand before the word, to which it belongs.

† See p. 417, Rule I.

in a particular case.* To give another example: Der Mann ſchreibt einen Brief, the man writes a letter;—der Mann is the subject, and einen Brief the object. These terms must be distinctly recollected, throughout the following pages.

Exceptions to the first Rule.

1. The Subject is put after the verb, in a direct question: as, Schreibt der Mann, does the man write? Schreibt, the verb—der Mann, the subject. It is the same, when the question begins with an interrogative pronoun, or interrogative adverb: as, Was ſagt der Vater, what says the father? welches Buch lieſt der Schüler, which book does the pupil read? warum lacht der Knabe, why does the boy laugh? weswegen weint die Schweſter, what does the sister weep for?

2. When, for the purpose of emphasis, the object is placed at the head of a sentence†. For instance: Dieſes Glück genießt der Tugendhafte, *this happiness* the virtuous man enjoys. Der Tugendhafte, is the subject, which follows after the verb, genießt; because the object, dieſes Glück, begins the sentence.

3. When the dative, or accusative, case of person‡ stands first: as, Dem Menſchen iſt das Leben theuer, *to man*

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* See p. 489, Rule IV.

† This emphasis will be farther explained afterwards.

‡ These cases of person, as they are called, will be more particularly adverted to.

life is dear; dieſen Knaben hat mein Freund die Franzöſiſche Sprache gelehrt, *this boy* my friend taught the French language. The sentences here begin with a case of person, and the subjects are found after the verb. This, and the preceding exception, may perhaps be together comprehended in these words, that, when any oblique case of declension begins a sentence, the subject must go after the verb.

4. When an adjective, or pronoun, serving for, or belonging to, the object, begins the sentence. Gut iſt der Wein zwar, aber auch theuer, the wine indeed is *good*, but also dear. The adjective gut has, in this instance, the capacity of the object, or, in the words used above, serves for the object, and beginning the sentence, moves the subject, der Wein, from its place. Gut findet mein Vater den Wein, &c. my father finds the wine *good*: here gut belongs to the object, den Wein, and has the same influence upon the subject. This is also to be observed in the pronoun, when it acts as the object: as, Mein iſt das Haus, *mine* is the house; mein represents the object, and das Haus, which is the subject is put after the verb. Sein nennt der König die Waldung, welche im Süden von England befindlich iſt, the king calls the forest his which is in the south of England. Sein serves for the object, and therefore brings the subject after the verb.

5. When the pronoun Es begins the sentence: for example, Es kömmt der König, the king is coming; es entſtand ein Lärm, a tumult arose.*

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* See p. 233, 4. and p. 414, 3.

6. When an infinitive is put at the beginning, either as a member of the sentence,* or for the sake of emphasis: for example, Um innere Ruhe zu genieſſen, müſſen die Pflichten der Religion erfüllt werden, in order to enjoy inward peace, *must the duties* of religion be fulfilled; gehorchen wollen die Leute nicht, obey *will the people* not—for, the duties must, the people will not.

7. The participles, with an adverbial power, to express the manner of acting,† being, or suffering, or participles generally, when placed in the beginning of a sentence, make the subject follow the verb. For instance: Weinend ſprach der Vater, *weeping* the father spoke; trauernd gingen die Gefährten zu dem Grabmahle, *mourning* the companions went to the sepulchre. Thus with the preterite participle; Geliebt und angebetet verließ der Held ſeine Mitbürger und eilte in das Schlachtfeld, neue Lorbeeren zu erringen, *beloved and adored*, the hero left his fellow citizens, and hastened into the field of battle to obtain new laurels.

8. The subject must be after the verb, when an adverb, or certain cases of nouns, used in an adverbial signification, or absolute cases,‡ commence the sentence. Bald kömmt der Winter, *soon* winter comes; ſchnell geht die Zeit dahin, *quickly* time passes. Unglücklicher Weiſe traf das

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* See Ex. p 162, n. 6.

† See p. 352, above.

‡ See p. 442.

Loos ſeinen Bruder, *unfortunately*, the lot fell upon his brother. Interrogative adverbs, (as warum, why; weswegen, what for, wherefore), having naturally their place in the beginning, cause the subject to stand after the verb.

9. When a preposition, with its case, takes the lead, Mit freudiger Mine gingen die Einwohner ihrem Befreier entgegen, *with a joyful countenance* the inhabitants went to meet their deliverer. When, however, the preposition, with its case, forms an exclamation, it is considered as an interjection, and does not move the subject from its place: as, Bey meiner Ehre, der Menſch iſt unſchuldig, upon my honour, the man is innocent.

10. The following conjunctions have the same effect, in transposing the subject, when they commence the sentence: but they may themselves be placed after the verb. Alſo, signifying so, thus: da, then; daher, thence, therefore; dann, then, (the same as denn): darauf, thereupon, then; darum, for that reason; demnach, consequently; dann, denn, then; deshalb, deshalben (derohalben), for that reason; deswegen, on that account; desgleichen, likewise; doch, yet, still, (it does not always affect the situation of the subject), ferner, moreover; folglich, consequently; gleichwohl, nevertheless; indeſſen, in the meanwhile; imgleichen, or ingleichen, likewise: jetzt, now; kaum, scarce; mithin, consequently; noch, yet, nor; nun, now; theils, partly; ſo, either meaning *so*, or beginning the subsequent member of a sentence überdieß, besides; übrigens, in other respects.—When the conjunctions, auch, also;

entweder, either; zwar, indeed, are in the beginning of the sentence, the subject may be put after the verb, by which means a stress falls either upon the subject, or the verb: as, Auch rief das Volk, the people even exclaimed: entweder lieſt der Knabe, oder er ſchreibt, the boy either reads or writes; zwar ſcheinet die Sonne, aber, &c. the sun indeed shines, but, &c. When the emphasis is to be on the subject, it should remain before the verb: as, Auch das Volk rief, even the people cried out.—In old and formal language, the subject is sometimes placed after the verb, when und, and, or ſondern, but, precedes. Und hat Beklagter erwieſen, and the defendant has proved. Here Beklagter, the subject is after the verb, in consequence of und.

11. In quoting, the subject is put after ſagen, or any similar verb, when part of the quotation goes before: as, Das Glück, ſagt der Weiſe, iſt verrätheriſch, Fortune, says the wise man, is treacherous.

12. The subject always follows the verb, in the subsequent member of a sentence.

Note. The *Subsequent member* of a sentence is that, which comes after one beginning with a relative pronoun, (such as was, what), or relative adverb, (such as wo, where), or a conditional, causal, or consecutive conjunction, (such as wenn, if; weil, because; da, when).*

* See the chapter on Conjunctions, p. 386.

Examples: Was der Vater sagt, thut der Sohn, what the father says, the son does. The first member of this sentence begins with the relative pronoun, was; in the second, or subsequent member, therefore, *the subject*, der Sohn, stands after the verb, thut. Wo das Aas ist, versammeln sich die Adler, where the carrion is, the eagles are collected. Here, the first member commences with the relative adverb wo; and the subject, in the following member, is after the verb.* Wenn das Wetter günstig bleibt, so kömmt mein Freund in wenigen Tagen, if the weather continues favourable, my friend comes, (or will come), in a few days. This sentence also consists of two members: *the first*, if the weather continues favourable; *the second*, my friend comes, or will come: in the latter, which is *the subsequent member*, the subject is placed after the verb. Thus, Weil die Zeit schnell verstreicht, so benutzt der Weise jeden Augenblick, because time passes quickly, the wise man turns every moment to profit. Here are again two members, *the antecedent*, because the time passes; and *the subsequent*, the wise man turns every moment to profit. The subject in the latter, of course,

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* Strictly speaking, we ought, in the second, here called the subsequent, member, to supply some demonstrative word, corresponding to the relative, in the first; namely das, in reference to the preceding was; and da, in correspondence with Wo. See Exercises p. 167. Note 2. The subsequent member may, perhaps, altogether, be said to depend upon connecting words, which are to be understood.

stands after the verb. Da Cäſar ſich näherte, entwichen die Feinde, when Cæsar approached *(antecedent)*, the enemy withdrew *(subsequent)*.—The subsequent member, after an antecedent, with a conjunction of the description alluded to, frequently begins with the particle So, concerning which it will be proper to refer to some remarks in Part I.* This particle serves as a connecting link, between the antecedent, and subsequent members.† It is not always made use of, when the prior member begins with a consecutive, or causal conjunction; but rarely omitted after a conditional, such as, wenn, if; obſchon, obgleich, wennſchon, wenngleich, though, although. The conjunction Wenn, if, is sometimes understood, in the antecedent; and with this circumstance, the subsequent member, generally, takes ſo, and the subject goes after the verb. For example: Wäre der Fluß ſchiffbar, ſo würde der Handel blühen, if the river were navigable, trade would flourish. The antecedent member should properly be thus expressed: Wenn der Fluß ſchiffbar wäre.—The conjunction deſto, and also je, when equivalent to deſto,‡ constitutes a subsequent member.—A subsequent member farther arises, when an infinitive begins the sentence,

* P. 391. and 474.

† It seems, that such a link, between the antecedent and subsequent members, may always be supposed; and that, if it is not expressed, it may be understood, as is intimated in the note, on the foregoing page. The note from the Exercises, p. 167, 2, may again be referred to, and another p. 168, 2, be likewise compared.

‡ See p. 388 See Appendix to the Element, p. 79.

expressing purpose and design. Um reich zu werden, unterzieht sich der Mensch oft den größten Mühseligkeiten, in order to grow rich, man often undergoes the greatest hardships. The latter, "man undergoes," &c. is the subsequent member, where the subject must be put after the verb.

13. The last instance, in which the verb precedes the subject, is where the conjunction wenn, if, is to be supplied: as Wäre mein Vater hier gewesen, so wäre das Unglück nicht geschehen, had my father been here, the misfortune would not have happened. Wäre mein Vater hier gewesen, stands undoubtedly for, wenn mein Vater hier gewesen wäre, if my father had been here; and the subject, as appears, is behind the verb. So it is in this passage of Gellert's letter: Sind sie ihr Herz und alles schuldig was Sie glücklich macht, so bin ich ihr einen, meiner ersten, meiner geistreichsten Freunde schuldig, if you owe to her (your mother) your heart and every thing that makes you happy, I owe her one of my first, my highly gifted friends." Here Wenn if, is left out in the beginning of the sentence before Sind.

From all the exceptions to the first rule, which have been enumerated, this general conclusion may be drawn, that the position of the *Subject* is affected by the collocation of the other words, in the sentence; and that, when these are moved out of their natural place, the subject loses its original situation.

Rule II. The Substantive, being *the Object*, is put after the verb: for example, Ich liebe meinen Vater, I love my father; meinen Vater is the object.

Excèptions:

1. When a stress is to be laid upon the object, it may be placed in the beginning of the sentence: as, Den Homer leſe ich mit Vergnügen und Bewunderung, *Homer* I read with pleasure and admiration.

2. The verb is sometimes thrown to the end of the sentence;* then the object, naturally, comes before it.

Rule III. The Substantive, in the *Genitive* case, not being the object,† generally stands after the word, by which it is governed: as, Der Sohn meines Freundes, the son of my friend.

But it is found

1. Before the substantive that governs it, when it bears an emphasis. Des Vaters Segen bauet den Kindern Häuſer, aber der Mutter Fluch reiſſet ſie nieder, a father's blessing builds houses for the children, but a mother's curse pulls them down.

2. Before adjectives: as, Des Verbrechens ſchuldig, guilty of the crime; des Lobes würdig, worthy of the praise; der Sorge unwerth, undeserving of the care.

3. Before some prepositions.‡

Rule IV. The *Dative* has its place after the verb, and if there be an objective case, besides, before the latter.

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* See Sect. IV. of this chapter.

† The genitive may be the object, when it is governed by the verb. See. p. 433 Rule II.

‡ See p. 366-368.

Er gibt dem Manne das Buch, he gives the book to the man. The dative, dem Manne, here stands between the verb, and the object.

When it is to be marked with an emphasis, it should be moved from its place, either before the verb, or after the object. The first is the most effectual: as, Dem Manne gibt er das Buch; the second does not so much alter the force of the sentence, er gibt das Buch dem Manne.—If the object be a monosyllable, or short word, and the dative case consist of more syllables, the former should be put first, because a long word finishes the sentence better than a short one; for example, Er sagte es dem Vater, he told it to the father—es, is the object, and comes before the dative. It is remarkable, that the object, being a case of a personal, or reciprocal pronoun, is generally put before the dative, though the latter should be of no greater extent, and likewise proceed from one of those pronouns. For example: Ich habe es *ihm* gesagt, I have told it him; er hat ihn *mir* gezeigt, he has pointed him out to me; wir empfehlen uns *dir*, we recommend ourselves to thee. The words here printed in Italicks, are dative cases, those immediately before them, in Roman type, the objective accusatives.*

Rule V. The *Accusative* serves to some verbs as the case of person, when there is another accusative of the thing, or object. The former is then placed in the same

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* Compare Sect. III. of this Chapter: and Exercises, p. 178. note 1.

manner as the dative, according to the preceding rule. Examples: Ich nenne den Mann Freund, I call the man friend; ich heiſſe einen ſolchen Mann einen Helden, I call such a man a hero; er lehrt den Sempronius die Rechenkunſt, he teaches Sempronius arithmetick.

Should the subject, the object, and the case of person meet together, either before, or after, the verb, they would follow in this order: subject, case of person, object. For example, before the verb: Da der König dem Feinde den Frieden angeboten hat, since the king has offered peace to the enemy. After the verb: Auf dieſe Weiſe verſchaffte Cäſar ſeinen Freunden Genugthuung und benahm ſeinen Feinden alle Hoffnung zur Rache, in this manner Cæsar procured satisfaction for his friends, and deprived his enemies of all hope of revenge.

Rule VI. The *Dative* and *Accusative* cases governed by adjectives,* stand before the same.†

Rule VII. The *Vocative* case may be put any where, either before, or after, the verb, at the option of the speaker.

SECTION II.

POSITION OF THE NOUN ADJECTIVE.

Rule I. The Adjective, being joined with a substantive, precedes the same: as, Guter Wein, good wine; das ſchöne Kind, the pretty child.

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* See p. 409. R. III. 2. and p. 410. 3.

† Compare Sect. II Rule IV.

Sometimes, it is placed after the substantive, by way of apposition, serving for a relative sentence: as, Der Miniſter, nicht weniger gerecht, als ſtaatsklug, that alles, um dieſem Ereigniſſe vorzubeugen, the minister, not less just than politick, did every thing to obviate this event. Here the adjectives, being put after the substantive, occupy the place of a relative sentence: welcher nicht weniger gerecht als ſtaatsklug war, who was not less just than politick.

Rule II. When the adjective is not united with a substantive (nor turned into a substantive itself—for thus it would have all the rights of the latter), it is considered as the object, and put after the verb: as, Der Mann iſt gut; or before it, with an emphasis, gut iſt der Mann.

Rule III. The Numerals rank before other adjectives, preceding a substantive: as, Drey gute, ehrliche Menſchen, three good honest men.

When cardinal and ordinal numbers meet before a substantive, it seems indifferent, which is put first: whether, for instance it be, Die drey erſten, the three first; or, die erſten drey, the first three. This applies also to the words, die andern, the others, and die letzten, the last, which may either be put before, or after, the cardinals. Perhaps adjectives of a superlative signification may be, generally, included in this observation. Examples, Die drey letzten, or, die letzten drey, the three last: die vier andern, or, die andern vier, the other four; die ſechs beſten, or, die beſten ſechs, the six best: die zehn ſchönſten, or die ſchönſten zehn, the ten finest. It is to be noticed, that the emphasis, in these instances, falls upon the word, which is put last.—The

words Alle, all; manche, several; viele, many; jeder, each, stand before the numerals, and the adjectives.

Rule IV. Adjectives usually follow the cases they govern: as, Dieſer Ehre würdig, worthy of this honour; des Verbrechens ſchuldig, guilty of the crime; dem Vater ähnlich, like the father; zehn Ehlen lang, ten yards long; drey Fuß breit, three feet broad; ſechs Pfund ſchwer, weighing six pounds. They are likewise, frequently, put after, when they are connected with nouns that are governed by prepositions: as, Es iſt zur Unterhaltung ſehr nützlich, it is very useful for entertainment: die Geſundheit iſt zur Glückſeligkeit unentbehrlich, health is indispensably necessary to happiness.

SECTION III.

POSITION OF THE PRONOUN.

Rule. The *Pronoun* either stands in the room of a substantive, or is connected with it, in the character of an adjective: and has, accordingly, either the position of the one or the other.

Therefore when used substantively, it may serve as the subject, and as the object, in a sentence, the collocation of which is seen in the first section. The personal pronoun never occurs otherwise, than as substantives; and the demonstratives *occasionally* assume that quality. When the latter are employed as adjectives, they occupy the place of the article, and go before any other word, that may be joined with the substantive: as, Dieſe drey

guten Leute, these three good people; jene vier erſten tapfern Männer, those four first brave men. The word All, however, may precede them.

The personal pronoun, in the accusative, or objective case, is commonly put before the dative: as, Er gibt es mir, he gives it to me—es, the objective case, before the dative mir. Schicke ſie ihm, send them to him—ſie, them, preceding ihm, to him.* The dative is found before the object: as, Gib mir es; but not so frequently as after it, and then it is often contracted,† as, mir es, into mirs, dir es, into dirs, euch es, into euchs, (not so properly ihms, ihrs, for ihm es, ihr es.)

Farther, the personal pronoun, in the dative, or accusative, is sometimes placed before the subject, when the verb is at the end of the sentence. Wenn mir das Glück günſtig iſt, if fortune is propitious to me; weil dich dein Vater liebt, because thy father loves thee. The truth is, that the small personal pronouns are put as early, in a sentence, as may be, I suppose, from a fear of their making too faint an impression, if removed to any distance from the beginning.

The relative pronoun finds its place, naturally, at the beginning of that part of the sentence, to which it belongs. The word All, may, sometimes, stand before it.

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* Sect. I. R. IV.

† See page 476.

SECTION IV.

POSITION OF THE VERB.

Rule I. The Indicative Mood stands after the subject, and before the object.

Except:

1. The instances, when the subject is placed after, and the object before it, which are mentioned in the first section.

2. When the verb must be at the end, that is to say, not only after the subject, but also after the object, and all words connected with the same. This is necessary:

(1) When the member of the sentence, to which the verb belongs, commences with a relative pronoun, as, der, welcher, wer, was; or a relative adverb, as, daher, from whence; darum, for what; warum, weshalb, or weshalben, weswegen, for which reason, for what, wherefore*; von wannen, from whence; wo, where; and the compounds of wo, as, wovon, woher, womit, woraus, &c. Examples: Der Schriftsteller ist zu schätzen, *welcher* die Beförderung der Tugend zum Zwecke *hat*—that writer, is to be esteemed, who has the promotion of virtue for his object.

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* The relative signification of these words must be distinguished from the other meanings which they bear, either as adverbs, or conjunctions. Daher, thence, therefore; darum, for what reason, therefore; warum, weswegen, why, for what reason—cause the subject to be placed after the verb.

Ich kenne einen Mann, *der* ſich mit Recht meinen Freund *nennt*. I know a man who justly calls himself my friend. *Wer* dem Laſter und deſſen Reitzen *folgt*, bereitet ſich eine ſchmerzliche, Reue, he who follows vice, and its charms, prepares to himself a painful repentance. The verb, in the foregoing examples, is at the end of that member of the sentence, to which the relative pronouns, der, welcher, wer, belong. It is thus with the adverbs alluded to: for instance, Der Ort, *wo* ich heute meinen Freund *sah*—the place where to-day I saw my friend. *Wohin* man das Auge nur *wendet*, erblickt man nichts als Elend, wherever one turns one's eye, one perceives nothing but misery. The verb ſah, and wendet, are put last, in consequence of wo, and wohin.

(2) The verb goes to the end, after interrogatives, (whether pronouns, adverbs, or conjunctions), when they form indirect questions. Examples: Er frägt mich, *wer* dieſen Morgen bey Ihnen *war*—he asks me, who was with you this morning? wiſſen Sie, *welches* Buch er heute in dem Garten *las*—do you know what book he read to-day in the garden? ſagen Sie mir, *was für einen* Grund er über ſein Ausbleiben *angibt*—tell me, what ground he alleges for his staying out. Wer, welcher, was fur ein, interrogative pronouns, serve here to indirect questions,*

* It is probably understood by every reader, what is meant by *indirect* questions: but there will remain no doubt, if we change some of the foregoing into *direct* questions, to show the difference, viz. Wer war bey Ihnen, who was with you? welches Buch las er, what book did he read?

and the verb stands last. Ich kann nicht ſagen, *wie* es ſich zugetragen *hat*—I cannot tell how it has happened; ich möchte wiſſen, *ob* viele Leute bey jetziger heiſſer Witterung auf dem Felde ſeyn *werden*—I should like to know, whether during the present hot weather, many people will be in the field. Wie, and ob, constitute indirect questions, and the verb is at the end.

(3) After conjunctions, conditional, causal, and consecutive. They are: Als, bevor, bis, da, dafern, damit (in order that); daß, auf daß (in order that); ehe, falls, im Falle (in case that); gleichwie, indem, immaßen, (since, because, old); nachdem; nun, (when it signifies, since, after—nun es einmal geſchehen iſt, (since it once has been done); ob, obſchon, obgleich, obwohl, ſeit, and ſeitdem; ſintemal (since, whereas, old); ſo (when it means, if); ſo bald, or ſo bald als; ſo lange, or ſo lange als; ſo weit, or ſo weit als; während, während daß; while, weil; wenn, wenngleich, wenn ſchon; wie, wiewohl, wofern, wo nicht. To these is to be added the comparative conjunction je, which, beginning the prior member, moves the verb to the end.* Example: *Als* er den Aufruhr in der Stadt *bemerkte*—when he perceived the tumult in the city; *bevor* ich den Wald erreicht *hatte*—before I had reached the wood; *bis* die Sonne die erſtarrten Felder auflöſen *wird*—till the sun shall loosen the congealed fields; *da* der König in London *ankam*—when the king arrived in London: *je* länger der Künſtler dieſe Ge-

* See p. 388. Compare the Exercises, p. 87. n. 1. and p. 189, n. 3.

genſtände *betrachtete*, deſto mehr bewunderte er ſie, the more the artist contemplated these objects the more he admired them.

By the force of the aforesaid conjunctions, the verb is put after every word, belonging to the same member of the sentence, and sometimes even after a subordinate member, connected with it. For example: Da ich den Mann, welcher ſo edel gedacht, ehre, und liebe, since I honour and love the man, who has thought so nobly. In this, the principal member is, da ich den Mann ehre und liebe, with which is connected a subordinate, or secondary, member, welcher ſo edel gedacht, and the verb of the former is placed after this. It need not necessarily be so; but the sentence might also run thus: Da ich den Mann ehre und liebe, welcher ſo edel gedacht. It depends upon sound, and perspicuity, to prefer either the one, or the other. This likewise applies to the infinitive, with the preposition zu. The verb, influenced by the above conjunctions, may be put after the infinitive: as, Weil ich mich nicht zu zanken wünſche, because I do not like to quarrel—or before it, weil ich nicht wünſche, mich zu zanken. When the infinitive, with zu, has other words belonging to it, for instance, cases of declension which it governs, it is preferable, on account of the extent, which it then assumes, to place it in a distinct comma, after the verb, lest the sentence should become heavy, and intricate.* Being without the preposition, zu, it is immediately governed by the verb, as much as a case of declension; and the verb, must under those circumstances, stand after it:

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* See Exerc. p. 186, n. 7.

as, Wenn er das Buch leſen will, if he will read that book; where it would be wrong to let the infinitive follow after the verb, as, wenn er will das Buch leſen.

The conjunctions, Daß, and Wenn, are occasionally understood, without being expressed.* Being thus absent from the sentence, they forfeit their power of moving the verb to the end.

Rule II.—*The Subjunctive Mood*, is, in the arrangement of words, under the same regulations, as the indicative. When it denotes a wish, or surprise, it often begins the sentence: as, Gebe es der Himmel, may heaven grant it! möchte die Sonne doch ſcheinen, oh that the sun would shine! Hätte ichs doch *nicht* geglaubt, I should not have thought it! Always, when the conditional conjunction, wenn, if, is omitted: Wäre ich hier geweſen, had I been here; for, wenn ich hier geweſen wäre, if I had been here.

Rule III.—*The Imperative* precedes the personal pronouns, that serve to it as subjects. Lobe du, praise thou; lobe er, let him praise; loben ſie, let them praise.

Rule IV.—*The Infinitive* comes after the object, and the other words of a sentence, except the indicative, and subjunctive, when these, for reasons assigned before, are put last. Examples: Er wünſcht die Lateiniſche Sprache

* See Gr. p. 425, and p. 474.

gründlich zu *lernen*—he wishes to learn the Latin language accurately; dieſer Mann kann Engliſch, Franzöſiſch, Deutſch; und verſchiedene andere Sprachen von Europa *reden*—this man can speak English, French, German, and several other tongues of Europe. Lernen and reden, are infinitives.

This rule affects the future tenses, because they are composed of an infinitive, and the third auxiliary. That infinitive, namely, is placed in the same manner, as in the examples above stated, that is to say, after the object, and other words: as, Ich *werde* morgen die Gegend *beſehen*—I shall to-morrow take a view of the country. Beſehen is the infinitive, belonging to the auxiliary werde, with which it constitutes the future tense; but this connexion does not alter its position, in the sentence.—When the future, in the indicative, or subjunctive mood, is obliged to go to the end, on account of some preceding word, which requires that collocation, the infinitive, which composes the future, must be put before the auxiliary: as, Man glaubt, daß der Kaiſer mit den Franzoſen Frieden machen werde, it is thought that the Emperour will make peace with the French. Here the infinitive machen, is before the auxiliary werde. When the future tense of the passive voice stands in that predicament, the auxiliary verb, in the indicative, or subjunctive, is often put before the infinitive, which is done to prevent, by means of the intervening participle, the close reiteration of werden: for example, Ich erwarte, daß verſchiedene Sachen nach unſerm Hauſe *werden* gebracht *werden*—I expect, that several things will be brought to our house. Another

expedient I have seen used by modern writers,* that of substituting the infinitive, of the second auxiliary, ſeyn, for werden. But this is taking an improper liberty with the language, by forcing upon it a foreign idiom: for the auxiliary, belonging to the passive voice, in German, is not ſeyn, but *werden*.

Sometimes, two infinitives stand together, of which one governs the other; then the governing one should be put after that, which is governed: as, Er wollte ſie nicht herein kommen laſſen, he would not let them come in. Here, laſſen, the governing infinitive is preceded by the other, herein kommen, which is governed. But this rule is not always observed, as the following example proves: Er hat ihn ſchon mehr als zehn mal müſſen hören,† he has been obliged more than ten times to hear him—which should be, hören müſſen.

The infinitive is found, now and then, at the very beginning of a sentence, and in that position bears a strong emphasis: as Kommen will ich zwar, *come*, indeed, I will; aber ſchreiben darf ich nicht, but *write*, I must not.

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* Lafontaine, in his Kleine Romane, vol. i. has this passage: Aber dennoch weiß ich, daß ich verachtet und gehaßt ſeyn werde. It may, however, be said, that, in this instance, the participles verachtet and gehaßt, are used as mere adjectives, (see Gr. p. 353); then the observation, in the text, would not apply.

† From Leſſing's Miſogyn, p. 279. In the Dutch language, in which the same position of words prevails, as in the German, the governing infinitive is constantly put *before* that, which is governed.

The infinitive may be employed, in a substantive capacity,* as the subject, or object: and is, then, placed according to these qualifications.

Rule V. The verbs compound separable must here be noticed. The particle is separated from the verb, when this is not at the end, and placed after the object, and other words,† including even a relative, or intermediate, member of the sentence. Ich nehme Ihr Geschenk mit Dankbarkeit an, I receive your present with gratitude; verb annehmen, to receive—the particle an, at the end. Sie kamen in Ansehung dieser Sache bald überein, they soon agreed with respect to this matter; verb übereinkommen. Nehmen Sie das Buch mit, take the book with you; verb mitnehmen. When the verb, in consequence of a pronoun, or a conjunction, is brought to the end of the sentence, the particle is not divided from it: as, Da ich Ihr Geschenk mit Dankbarkeit annehme, as I receive your present with gratitude. The verb annehme stands last, on account of the conjunction da, and remains, for this reason, united with the particle.—The infinitive mood, and preterite participle have their places after the object, and at, or near, the end of the sentence; therefore, the particle is not separated, except by zu, in the infinitive, and by ge, in the preterite participle: as, mitzunehmen, mitgenommen. Zu, however, does not always accompany the infinitive. From what has been said, it appears, that the separation principally occurs in the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative moods.

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* See p. 465.

† Refer to p. 334. II. 2.

SECTION V.

POSITION OF THE PARTICIPLE.

Rule I.—When the participle, either present, or preterite, is used as an adjective, it has the privileges of the same, in the position of words.

Rule II.—The present participle is always preceded by the case it governs: as, Die alles belebende Sonne, the sun animating every thing; die Fleiſch freſſenden Thiere, the animals that live upon-flesh.*

Rule III.—The preterite participle is, commonly, put after the words, with which it is connected: as, Das Buch, von dem Vater geſchrieben, the book written by the father.

Rule IV.—When combined with the auxiliary verbs, it has its station after the object, and other words; and is, therefore, generally, found towards the end of the sentence. Er iſt in London geweſen, he has been in London—iſt geweſen, the participle geweſen at the end. Ich habe heute das Buch geleſen, I have read the book to-day—habe geleſen. Er wird mit Recht ein großer Mann genannt, he is justly called a great man. If the auxiliary, by the power of some pronoun, or conjunction, be removed to the end, the preterite participle stands before it: as, Die Thaten, welche von dem Dichter geſchildert werden, the deeds that are depicted by the poet. The auxiliary, werden, at the end, because of the pronoun welche; the participle, geſchildert,

* See p. 352.

before it. Ich weiß es, weil ich den Mann selbst gesehen habe, I know it, because I have seen the man myself. Weil, conjunction, brings the verb habe to the end, and the participle, gesehen, precedes it.—When the preterite participle, and the infinitive of an auxiliary verb come together, the participle is placed before the infinitive: as, Gelesen haben, to have read; geliebt werden, to be loved. Should it so happen, that the participle, infinitive and verb definite, that is to say, either the indicative, or subjunctive, meet together at the end of a sentence, the arrangement may either be thus, participle, infinitive, indicative or subjunctive, Nachdem ich das Buch gelesen haben werde, after I shall have read the book; or the verb definite, may be put before the participle, and infinitive, nachdem ich das Buch werde gelesen haben. I think, it may be left to the judgment of every individual, which of these two ways should, upon different occasions, have the preference.

SECTION VI.

POSITION OF THE ADVERB.

Rule I.—An adverb, joined to an adjective, must always remain before it: as, Sehr gut, very good; nicht schlecht, not bad.

Rule II.—When the adverb belongs to the verb, whose action it defines, and modifies, it is put after the verb,*

* See Exercises, p. 198, note 4.

and, in general, also after the object. Er behandelt den Gegenſtand vortrefflich, he treats the subject excellently; vortrefflich is the adverb. Such adverbs, however, as denote time, for example, *often*, *frequently*, *to-day*, *yesterday*, and the like, are best stationed immediately after the verb, and before the object.*

The verb being at the end of the sentence, the adverb, as well as the other words, must naturally stand before it. Nor can the adverb, with propriety, be placed after the infinitive, or preterite participle. Moreover, unless the verb be at the end, the adverb cannot be suffered between the subject and the verb.

Rule III.—The adverb, being moved from its place, towards the beginning of the sentence, generally receives an emphasis: as, Ich habe heute das Buch geleſen, I have to-day read the book; which makes the notion of heute, to-day, more perceptible than, Ich habe das Buch heute geleſen. This seems to be the reason why adverbs, implying time, are, as has just been observed, commonly placed before the object: namely, they are thus rendered more distinct. But to make the emphasis so evident, that it cannot be mistaken, the adverb should be put quite at the beginning. Heute habe ich den König geſehen, to-day I have seen the king. In this remark are not included the interrogative adverbs, such as, wie, how; wenn, when; warum, why; weswegen, what for; wo, where; which, as they can be placed no where but in

* Compare Exerc. p. 199. n. 1.

the beginning, derive no particular distinction from that position.

There are adverbs that in no place seem to be susceptible of an emphasis, viz. those which express chance, probability, and similar vague, and undefined, ideas— vielleicht, perhaps; vermuthlich, probably; wahrſcheinlich, very likely; and others. As no difference arises, in the purport of the sentence, from their situation, they may be put any where, even between the subject nominative and the verb, where no other adverb is permitted to stand. Dieſer Mann vielleicht wird es wiſſen, this man perhaps will know it; ſein Bruder vermuthlich hat ihm das geſchrieben, his brother probably has written that to him. If they have any effect, when thus transposed, it may be, that they rather give force to the subject.

The Negative, Nicht, not, has its station commonly after the object: as, Der Mann thut ſeine Pflicht nicht, the man does not do his duty. Here the action of the verb is accompanied by the negative. If it is to be particularly referred to the subject, or object, or any other word, it must be put before such word. Nicht Reichthum, ſondern Zufriedenheit macht die Menſchen glücklich, not riches but contentment makes men happy. In this instance, the negative is applied to the subject, and stands before it. Laßt uns nicht den Verluſt des Schiffes, ſondern dem Tod ſo vieler trefflicher Seeleute beklagen, do not let us lament the loss of the ship, but the death of so many fine seamen. The negative before the object.

SECTION VII.

POSITION OF THE PREPOSITION.

Rule I.—The preposition always continues with its case and is, usually, prefixed to it.

Halben, halber, entgegen, zuwider, are constansly put after their cases. Durch, nach, gegenüber, ungeachtet, wegen, zu, zufolge, zuwider, sometimes before, and sometimes after. See the Prepositions in the First Part.

Rule II.—The preposition, together with its case, may be looked upon, in the position of words, as an adverb: accordingly, its place will be after the object. Ich habe einen Brief aus Deutschland erhalten, I have received a letter from Germany. In Luther's translation of the Bible, and in other old writings, the preposition, with its case, is frequently, if not commonly, found after the verb, at the end of the sentence, as in this example, Ich habe einen Brief erhalten aus Deutschland. This practice, which had justly been corrected, by giving to the preposition the same rank with the adverb, upon grammatical principles, has of late been revived; and adopted by those, who were not aware of the ground, on which it had been altered.*

Rule III.—From thence it may be transferred, before the object, for the purpose of emphasis: Ich habe aus Deutschland einen Brief erhalten—here the words, aus Deutsch-

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* Refer to the Exercises, p. 200, note, 6.

land, acquire energy from their position. But the stress is most forcible, when the preposition is placed in front of the sentence: Aus Deutschland habe ich einen Brief erhalten, *from Germany* I have received a letter.

Rule IV.—It cannot be inserted between the subject and the verb, unless it solely belongs to the former: as, Der Mann mit dem blauen Rocke hat es gethan, the man with the blue coat (that is, wearing a blue coat) has done it. Jener mit dem Degen hat den Mord begangen, that one with the sword, (that is, he who has the sword), has committed the murder. It is not said, that the first has done it with the blue coat, or that the second has committed the murder with the sword: this would be a false construction. But, from the collocation of the words, it is to be understood, that the one, who wears a blue coat, is charged with a certain deed, and the other, who has a sword, has committed a murder. Therefore, if the preposition, with its case, is not exclusively referred to the subject, it cannot be put, where we see it, in the examples adduced.

Rule V.—If both adverb, and preposition meet in the same member of a sentence, the adverb should come before the preposition, especially, when the former consists only of one, or two syllables: for example, Er schreibt gut mit dieser Feder, he writes well with this pen: wir gehen heute auf die Jagd, we go a hunting to-day: sie reiseten eilig durch London, they passed hastily through London; er wird morgen zu mir kommen, he will come to me to-morrow. The adverbs gut, heute, eilig, morgen, here stand before the preposition.

SECTION VIII.

POSITION OF THE CONJUNCTION.

Rule I.—The conjunction is, in general, placed at the beginning, and before the subject.

Rule II.—Some conjunctions force the verb to the end of the sentence, as has been stated in the fourth section.* They are: Als, bevor, bis, da, dafern, damit, auf daß, ehe, falls, gleichwie, indem, im Falle, je, nachdem, nun, ob, obschon, obgleich, obwohl, seit, seitdem, sintemal, so, so bald, so bald als, so lange, so lange als, so weit, so weit als, während, während das, weil, wenn, wenn gleich, wenn schon, wie, wiefern, in wiefern, wiewohl, wofern, wonicht.

Rule III.—Others when at the beginning, make the subject go behind the verb. They are: Da, then; daher, therefore; dann, darauf, darum, for that reason; demnach, dennoch, jedoch, jedennoch, jetzt, folglich, hingegen, indessen, imgleichen, or ingleichen, kaum, mithin, noch, nun, so, überdieß, übrigens. Da kam der Mann, then came the man; mithin, irrt sich dein Bruder, consequently your brother mistakes. Excepting da, and mithin, all the rest may likewise be put after the verb: as, Der Mann glaubt daher, the man thinks therefore; ich zweifle jedoch, I, however, doubt. Ferner, folglich, hingegen, indessen, ingleichen, überdieß, übrigens, may even stand between the subject and the verb: Der

* See p. 501.

Verfaſſer ferner behauptet, the author, moreover, maintains. Alſo, doch, entweder, weder, zwar, are to be added to the foregoing; for when they begin a sentence, they may, like these, bring the subject after the verb, though it is not necessary.* It is right to say, Alſo der Bruder hat geſchrieben, and, alſo hat der Bruder geſchrieben. Likewise thus: Der Bruder hat alſo geſchrieben, and der Bruder alſo hat geſchrieben. By this transposition, the stress of the sentence may be varied, which is no small advantage in composition. The word nämlich, namely, which should be considered as a conjunction, may be included among those last mentioned: but, when at the beginning of a sentence, it never has the power of moving the subject after the verb.

Rule IV.—The conjunctions, Aber, but, and Auch, also, may stand any where in the sentence.† At the beginning, Aber mein Bruder weigert ſich, but my brother declines it. After another conjunction, Da aber mein Bruder ſich weigert. After an adverb, Nun aber befielht es der König, but now the King commands it; or after a preposition with its case, Mit dieſen Leuten aber kann ich nichts anfangen, but with these people I can do nothing. And it makes no alteration in the influence of other words, upon the constitution of the sentence. Those, for instance, which move the subject after the verb retain the same qualification, though aber be inserted after them; as appears from the preceding examples. It may

* See p. 488.

† Auch, is mentioned, p. 488, 10.

farther be placed after the subject, Die Franzoſen aber haben den Engländern den Krieg erklärt. After the object, Die Franzoſen haben den Engländern den Krieg aber erklärt. When not in the beginning, it commonly gives energy to the word that precedes it. The personal pronouns are, generally, put before it, when the verb has quitted its original place: as, Da er aber nicht kömmt, but since he does not come; das wünſchen wir aber nicht, but this we do not wish; das Geld verlange ich aber, but the money I demand. —What has been remarked of aber, may, almost entirely, be applied to Auch; though perhaps, if we speak cautiously, we should say, that auch has nearly, but not quite the same licence of position. It, is, moreover, possessed of the power, when placed at the beginning of a sentence, of bringing the subject after the verb, which power Aber has not.

SECTION IX.

POSITION OF THE INTERJECTION.

The position of the interjection is arbitrary; it may be placed wherever it presents itself, according to the feeling, and impulse of the speaker, or writer.*

* See Exercises, p. 209. n. *l.*

THE END.

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